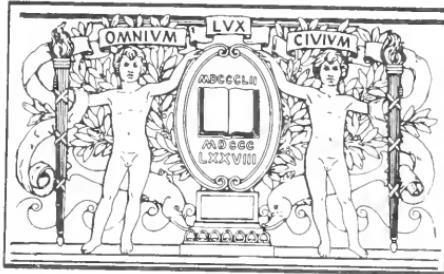


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The Commonwealth of Massachusetts

FORTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

ON THE

STATISTICS OF LABOR

FOR THE YEAR

1912

BY

THE DIRECTOR OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS



BOSTON

WRIGHT & POTTER PRINTING CO., STATE PRINTERS
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THE STATE BOARD OF PUBLICATION.

STATISTICS OF LABOR—1912.

PREFATORY NOTE.

The matter presented in this volume constitutes the Forty-third Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor for Massachusetts. *Part I* relates to the Immigrant Population of Massachusetts and contains the eighth annual compilation by this Bureau of statistics of immigrant aliens destined for and of emigrant aliens departed from Massachusetts for the year ending June 30, 1912; an abstract of the data relating to Massachusetts published in the comprehensive reports of the United States Immigration Commission, which was issued in 42 volumes of 30,000 pages; and an abstract of the statistics of the foreign-born population of Massachusetts, 1910, published by the United States Bureau of the Census. *Part II*, entitled "Labor Bibliography, 1912," is a list of the important titles, either books or in periodicals, which have appeared in the calendar year 1912 on the subject of labor in its broad aspect. *Part III* is the thirteenth annual report on Strikes and Lockouts and contains, in addition to the customary statistics and detailed statement of strikes which occurred during the year, a reprint of the report of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics on the strike of the textile workers at Lawrence.

As those familiar with the work of the Bureau in this field realize, the matter embraced between the two covers of this report constitutes but a portion of the publications of the Bureau within the field of labor statistics and inquiry, there having been issued during the past year, in addition to the three parts of this report, numerous "bulletins" dealing with a variety of subjects which do not differ materially in character or scope from those treated in this volume.

These reports continue to be prepared under the immediate supervision of Mr. Frank S. Drown, Chief Statistician of the Labor Division of the Bureau of Statistics, and Mr. Roswell F. Phelps, Assistant. *Part II*, Labor Bibliography, was prepared by Miss Etta F. Philbrook, Librarian.

CHARLES F. GETTEMY,
Director, Bureau of Statistics.

STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, October 22, 1913.

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PART I.

THE IMMIGRANT POPULATION
OF
MASSACHUSETTS.

THE IMMIGRANT POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS.

INTRODUCTION.

This report consists of three parts, as follows:

I. Immigrant Aliens Destined for and Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts, 1912.¹

II. Immigrants in Cities and Industries.

III. Foreign-born Population of Massachusetts, 1910.

The first part of this report has reference to the changes in the population of the Commonwealth resulting from immigration and emigration during recent years and has been compiled from the Annual Reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration; the second part is an abstract of the Report of the United States Immigration Commission, created by Act of Congress in 1907; while the third part is an abstract of the statistics of population of the Thirteenth United States Census (1910).

The report of the United States Immigration Commission² was recently issued in 42 volumes with a total of 30,000 pages, but the edition was so limited that it has seemed that a useful service would be rendered by this Bureau in making available for our own constituency the information for Massachusetts covered by this important inquiry.³ We have therefore prepared an abstract of several of the volumes so as to present in a compact form the principal facts ascertained by the Commission relative to the living conditions and the economic status of that portion of the immigrant population of Boston and of other cities of Massachusetts which was under consideration by the Commission. The investigations of the Commission

¹ Similar presentations of this nature for prior years have been published by this Bureau in Labor Bulletins Nos. 38 (December, 1905), 49 (May, 1907), 56 (January, 1908), 63 (Apr., 1909), 75 (August, 1910), 81 (May, 1911), and 90 (March, 1912).

² Senate Documents Nos. 208, 282, 338, 633, 61st Congress 2d Session, and Nos. 662, 665, 747, 748, 749, 750, 753, 756, 758, 761, 764, and 785, 3d Session.

³ Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, a member of the Commission, and Mr. W. Jett Lauck, superintendent of field agents, prepared a book on the salient points of this report which was published under the title of "The Immigration Problem" by Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1912.

Introduction.

were of such wide range and exhaustiveness that considerable time was required in securing and compiling the statistical data, and although the field work was conducted principally in 1908 and 1909 the reports have been but recently published. The general housing conditions in the cities show but little change from year to year; a second investigation, even as late as 1912, would probably therefore have found the housing and living conditions practically the same as in 1908, although the exact location of the various immigrant colonies may have changed somewhat during the interval.

Immigrant Aliens — 1912.

I. IMMIGRANT ALIENS DESTINED FOR AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM MASSACHUSETTS, 1912.¹**1. INTRODUCTORY.**

The primary purpose in preparing this report has been to show the volume and character of that portion of immigration to the United States which was destined for Massachusetts and the volume and character of that portion of the immigrant population of Massachusetts which departed from the Commonwealth to take up a permanent residence abroad. The data herein presented have been selected from the Annual Reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration for the years 1896 to 1912, and from the Annual Reports of the Superintendent of Immigration for the years 1893 to 1895.

2. IMMIGRANT ALIENS DESTINED FOR MASSACHUSETTS.

The number of immigrant aliens admitted to the United States and destined for Massachusetts shows a decrease in 1912 as compared with 1911, while the proportion of those destined for Massachusetts of those admitted to the United States shows a slight increase.

There has been considerable variation in the total number of immigrants to the United States in each year and also in the number destined for Massachusetts during the past 20 years. The number admitted to the United States in 1893 was 439,730, but this large total was not reached again until 1900, and from year to year thereafter, with the exception of 1904, it increased until in 1907 there were 1,285,349 immigrants admitted. This was the record year both for the United States and for Massachusetts. The number admitted fell far short in 1908 and 1909, increased to 1,041,570 in 1910, fell to 878,587 in 1911 and to 838,172 in 1912.

The largest percentage of immigrants destined for Massachusetts was in 1895, when 11.6 per cent came to this State. Notwithstanding the much larger numbers of immigrant aliens entering the United States in 1905, 1906, 1907, and again in 1910, the percentages destined for Massachusetts were only 7.0, 6.7, 6.7, and 7.9 for the respective years. It may be noted, also, that while the number of immigrants entering the United States decreased

¹ An *immigrant alien* is a person, not already a citizen of the United States, who enters this country with the avowed intention of settling here and who is not returning to resume a domicile formerly acquired here. An *emigrant alien* is a person, not already a citizen of the United States, whose permanent residence has been in the United States, who intends to reside permanently abroad and who is not making a temporary trip abroad.

Immigrant Aliens — 1912.

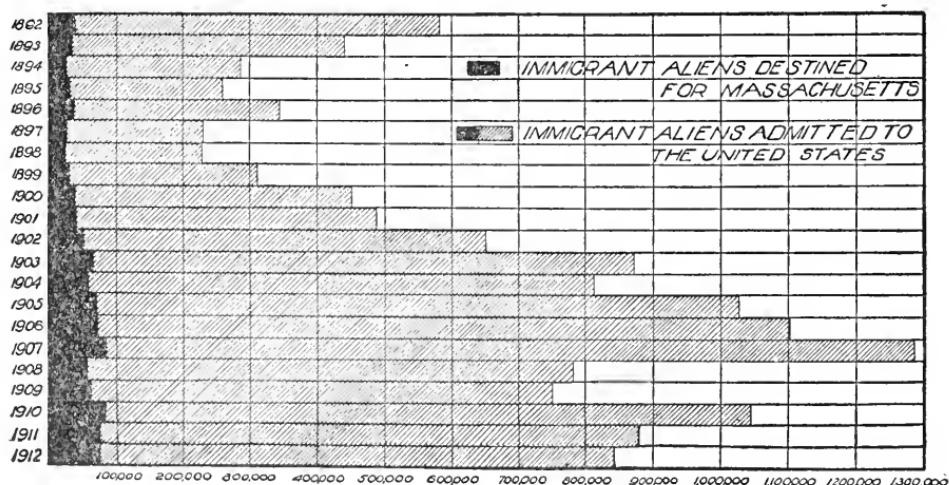
TABLE 1.—Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts and Total Number Admitted to the United States, with Percentages: By Years, 1893–1912.

YEARS. ¹	Number of Immigrant Aliens whose Destina- tion was Massachusetts	Total Number of Immigrant Aliens Admitted to the United States	Percentages of Total Immigrant Aliens whose Destination was Massachusetts
1893,	35,531	439,730	8.1
1894,	25,995	285,631	9.1
1895,	30,027	258,536	11.6
1896,	36,561	343,267	10.7
1897,	24,581	230,832	10.6
1898,	23,849	229,299	10.4
1899,	30,754	311,715	9.9
1900,	39,474	448,572	8.8
1901,	41,789	487,918	8.6
1902,	50,939	648,743	7.9
1903,	65,757	857,046	7.7
1904,	58,411	812,870	7.2
1905,	72,151	1,026,499	7.0
1906, ²	73,863	1,100,735	6.7
1907, ²	85,583	1,285,349	6.7
1908, ²	57,303	782,870	7.3
1909, ²	61,197	751,786	8.1
1910, ²	82,666	1,041,570	7.9
1911, ²	70,811	878,587	8.1
1912, ²	70,171	838,172	8.4
1893–1912 (20 years),	1,037,413	13,059,727	7.9
Averages, 1893–1912,	51,871	652,986	—

¹ The years referred to throughout this article are in each case the years ending June 30.

² In this table the returns for the years 1906–1912 are not strictly comparable with those for the earlier years because in 1905 and in prior years all aliens arriving at ports of the United States, with the exception of those merely in transit to other countries, were reported as "alien arrivals." During the years 1906–1912 there have been segregated from those arriving not only aliens in transit, but all aliens returning from visits abroad to resume previously established permanent domiciles in the United States, and all coming simply as visitors or tourists with the intention of returning to homes abroad. The totals for the years 1893 to 1905 are directly comparable with each other as they stand in the table.

IMMIGRATION CHART. — Immigrant Aliens Admitted to the United States and Destined for Massachusetts, 1892–1912.



Immigrant Aliens—1912.

from 878,587 in 1911 to 838,172 in 1912, and the number destined for Massachusetts in these years likewise decreased from 70,811 to 70,171, the percentage destined for Massachusetts increased from 8.1 to 8.4.

Massachusetts has always been one of the leading States as the declared destination of immigrants, ranking third or fourth for over 20 years, and having been exceeded only by New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois, and during the period 1894–1904 having been exceeded only by New York and Pennsylvania.

During recent years there has been considerable change in the sources of immigration. A large part of our immigration was formerly of Teutonic and Celtic origin, but for several years the bulk of immigration has come from Slavonic and Iberic countries of Eastern and Southern Europe and Western Asia. The number admitted in 1912 of such origin was 570,130, or about 68 per cent of all immigrants admitted. Massachusetts receives a smaller proportion of this immigration than the country as a whole, nevertheless somewhat over 40 per cent of the immigrant aliens destined for Massachusetts during the year 1912 were of Slavonic and Iberic origin.

The number of immigrant aliens admitted to the United States and to Massachusetts, together with the percentage by races of peoples destined for this State for the year ending June 30, 1912, is presented in Table 2. There were 16 races represented by 1,000 or more immigrants destined for Massachusetts, the Italians (south) leading with 12,611, or 9.3 per cent of the total number of Italians (south) admitted to the United States. Second in point of numbers were the Polish, 7,988, or 9.4 per cent, who were destined for this State, followed in numerical importance by: Irish, 5,866; English, 5,552; Hebrew, 5,097; and Portuguese, 4,967. For several years the Portuguese have shown the largest percentage destined for Massachusetts of any race of immigrant arrivals in the United States, the percentage in 1912 having been 52.8 as compared with 51.7 per cent in 1911, 55.2 in 1910, and 62.9 per cent in 1909. The corresponding percentages for other races or peoples showing over 10 per cent destined for Massachusetts in 1912 were: Armenian, 26.3; African (black), 19.1; Finnish, 18.2; Lithuanian, 17.6; Irish, 17.3; French, 17.2; Scotch, 14.9; Greeks, 14.4; Russian, 11.8; and English, 11.2.

The percentages for these several races destined for Massachusetts vary but little from the corresponding percentages for 1911, the largest variations being an increase from 15.1 per cent in 1911 to 18.2 in 1912 for the Finnish; from 12.0 to 14.9 for the Scotch; from 8.9 to 11.8 for the Russians; and from 15.2 to 17.6 per cent for the Lithuanians. There was a noticeable decrease (from 12.5 to 11.2) in the percentage of English who were destined for Massachusetts.

Immigrant Aliens — 1912.

The 16 races specified in Table 2 are those only which ranked highest with respect to the numbers destined for Massachusetts. There are, however, many peoples who come in great numbers to the United States, very few or practically none of whom are destined for this State. Thus in 1912 out of 25,281 Slovaks admitted to the United States only 205 were destined for Massachusetts; of 24,366 Croatians and Slovenians, only 37; of 23,599 Magyars, only 36; of 22,001 Mexicans, only 14; of 21,965 Ruthenians (Russniak), only 627; of 10,935 Dutch and Flemish, only 442; and of 10,657 Bulgarians, Servians, and Montenegrins, only 98.¹

TABLE 2. — Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts and Total Number Admitted to the United States, with Percentages, in 1912, and Averages for the Five-year Period 1907–1911: By Races.

RACES OR PEOPLES.	1912			ANNUAL AVERAGES — 1907-1911		
	Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Number of Immigrant Aliens Admitted to the United States	Percentages of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Immigrant Aliens Admitted to the United States	Percentages of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts
Italian (south),	12,611	135,830	9.3	13,483	174,121	7.7
Polish,	7,988	85,163	9.4	8,304	96,699	8.6
Irish,	5,866	33,922	17.3	6,470	36,989	17.5
English,	5,552	49,659	11.2	5,959	49,992	11.9
Hebrew,	5,097	80,595	6.3	5,846	97,121	6.0
Portuguese,	4,967	9,403	52.8	4,008	7,238	55.4
Greek,	4,561	31,566	14.4	5,124	34,302	14.9
French,	3,160	18,382	17.2	2,953	16,187	18.2
Scotch,	3,030	20,293	14.9	2,473	20,843	11.9
Russian,	2,673	22,558	11.8	1,320	15,994	8.3
Lithuanian,	2,472	14,078	17.6	2,934	18,920	15.5
Scandinavian,	1,953	31,601	6.2	2,577	43,821	5.9
Italian (north),	1,529	26,443	5.8	2,015	32,501	6.2
Armenian,	1,375	5,222	26.3	1,037	3,530	29.4
African (black),	1,290	6,759	19.1	928	5,171	17.9
Finnish,	1,209	6,641	18.2	1,852	11,762	15.7
Others,	4,833	260,027	1.9	4,229	282,842	1.5
Totals,	70,171	838,172	8.4	71,512	948,033	7.5

¹ The following statement shows the States for which were destined large numbers of immigrant aliens of those races which were well represented in the total immigration to the United States in 1912, but which races furnished but few persons destined for Massachusetts:

Slovaks (25,281). — Pennsylvania, 11,221 (about 44 per cent); New York, 3,390; Ohio, 2,653; New Jersey, 2,589; Illinois, 2,028; other States, 3,400.

Croatians and Slovenians (24,366). — Pennsylvania, 8,063 (33.1 per cent); Ohio, 3,190; Illinois, 2,978; New York, 2,595; Wisconsin, 1,361; other States, 6,179.

Magyars (23,599). — Pennsylvania, 5,161; Ohio, 4,702; New York, 4,236; New Jersey, 3,619; Illinois, 1,297; Michigan, 1,090; other States, 3,494.

Mexicans (22,001). — Texas, 18,494; Arizona, 1,784; other States, 1,723.

Ruthenians (Russniak) (21,965). — Pennsylvania, 7,909; New York, 5,982; New Jersey, 2,889; other States, 5,185.

Dutch and Flemish (10,935). — Michigan, 2,672; New York, 1,766; Illinois, 1,344; other States, 5,153.

Bulgarians, Servians, and Montenegrins (10,657). — Ohio, 2,107; Illinois, 1,794; Pennsylvania, 1,694; New York, 1,109; other States, 3,953.

Immigrant Aliens — 1912.

A comparison by races of the number of immigrant aliens destined for Massachusetts in 1912 with the average annual number so destined during the preceding five-year period, 1907–1911 (see Table 2), shows that the order of the five leading races was the same in 1912 as for the five-year period, namely: Italian (south), Polish, Irish, English, and Hebrew. Six of the races specified in the table showed an increase in the number destined for Massachusetts in 1912 as compared with the corresponding annual average for the five-year period,— the percentages of increase being as follows: Russian, 102.5; African (black), 39.0; Armenian, 32.6; Portuguese, 23.9; Scotch, 22.5; and French, 7.0. The percentages of decrease for the 10 races which showed a decrease in 1912 as compared with the annual average for the five-year period were: Finnish, 34.7; Scandinavian, 24.2; Italian (north), 24.1; Lithuanian, 15.7; Hebrew, 12.8; Greek, 11.0; Irish, 9.3; English, 6.8; Italian (south), 6.5; and Polish, 3.8. For all races there was a decrease of 1.9 per cent in the number destined for Massachusetts in 1912 as compared with the corresponding annual average for the five-year period 1907–1911.

Immigrant Aliens — 1912.

TABLE 3.—Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts and Total Number Admitted to the United States, with Percentages, in 1912, and Averages for the Five-year Period 1907–1911: By Occupations.

OCCUPATIONS.	1912			ANNUAL AVERAGES — 1907-1911		
	Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Number of Immigrant Aliens Admitted to the United States	Percentages of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Immigrant Aliens Admitted to the United States	Percentages of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts
<i>Professional.</i>						
Teachers,	658	11,685	5.6	554	10,827	5.1
Musicians,	178	2,035	8.7	124	1,606	7.7
Electricians,	69	1,286	5.4	57	992	5.7
Clergy,	64	741	8.6	54	668	8.0
Engineers (professional),	58	1,063	5.5	54	938	5.8
Others,	57	1,563	3.6	66	1,849	3.6
	232	4,997	4.6	199	4,774	4.2
<i>Skilled.</i>						
Tailors,	10,829	127,016	8.5	10,698	137,715	7.8
Shoemakers,	1,297	18,836	6.9	1,316	19,941	6.6
Clerks and accountants,	991	8,671	11.4	843	8,690	9.7
Carpenters and joiners,	933	12,701	7.3	765	11,101	6.9
Weavers and spinners,	908	11,034	8.2	981	13,543	7.2
Seamstresses,	824	2,909	28.3	1,065	3,571	29.8
Textile workers (n. s.),	595	7,636	7.8	328	4,666	7.0
Dressmakers,	434	1,051	41.3	507	1,038	48.8
Masons,	430	5,244	8.2	503	6,603	7.6
Blacksmiths,	421	4,555	9.2	392	6,348	6.2
Mariners,	340	3,954	8.6	317	4,551	7.0
Barbers and hairdressers,	207	4,124	7.2	301	4,897	6.1
Painters and glaziers,	285	3,100	9.2	222	2,798	7.9
Bakers,	255	2,816	9.1	259	3,541	7.3
Others,	234	3,678	6.4	228	3,537	6.4
	2,555	36,707	7.0	2,666	42,881	6.2
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>						
Farm laborers,	40,687	468,401	8.7	41,705	544,550	7.7
Laborers,	14,418	184,154	7.8	11,742	219,751	5.3
Servants,	12,643	135,726	9.3	17,680	196,458	9.0
MERCHANTS AND DEALERS,	11,694	116,529	10.0	10,440	95,982	10.9
Farmers,	493	10,240	4.8	495	11,336	4.4
Others,	444	7,664	5.8	507	10,322	4.9
	995	14,088	7.1	841	10,701	7.9
No occupation (including women and children),	17,997	231,070	7.8	18,555	254,940	7.3
Totals,	70,171	838,172	8.4	65,512	948,032	7.5

Table 3 shows, by occupations, the number of immigrant aliens admitted to the United States, the number destined for Massachusetts, and the corresponding percentages for the year 1912 and averages for the five-year period 1907–1911. The total number destined for Massachusetts classified as professional was 658 in 1912, this being 5.6 per cent of the 11,685 admitted to the United States. The percentage of aliens classified as engaged in professional occupations of the total number admitted to the United States was greater in 1912 than for the preceding five-year period, the respective percentages being 5.6 and 5.1. Of those in professional occupations teachers ranked first in point of numbers and likewise with respect to the percentage destined for Massachusetts.

The total number of skilled workmen destined for Massachusetts was 10,829, or 15.4 per cent of the total number of immigrants destined for Massachusetts,

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comprising, however, only 8.5 per cent of the total number of skilled workmen admitted to the United States, but the percentage is somewhat larger than the corresponding percentage (7.8) for the five-year period 1907–1911.

Over two-fifths (41.3 per cent) of the textile workers (unclassified) entering the United States chose Massachusetts as their destination; 28.3 per cent of the weavers and spinners; 11.4 per cent of the shoemakers; 9.2 per cent of the masons; and 9.2 per cent of the barbers and hairdressers were so destined.

There were 40,687 miscellaneous unskilled workmen who were destined for Massachusetts in 1912, or 8.7 per cent of the 468,401 admitted to the United States. Farm laborers to the number of 14,418, or 7.8 per cent, ranked first; laborers, 12,643, or 9.3 per cent, ranked second; and servants, 11,694, or 10 per cent, ranked third. For the five-year period laborers ranked first with an annual average of 17,680, or 9 per cent; farm laborers second with an annual average of 11,742, or 5.3 per cent; and servants third with an annual average of 10,440, or 10.9 per cent.

The total number of immigrant aliens entering this State in 1912 having no occupation, including women and children, was 17,997, or 7.8 per cent of the 231,070 admitted to the United States, while the corresponding per cent for the five-year period was 7.3.

There were in addition to the occupations shown in Table 3 several occupations represented by a large number of aliens admitted to the United States of whom but a very few were destined for Massachusetts. Only 170 miners of 5,889 admitted to the United States were destined for this State, 173 of the 3,143 butchers admitted, 152 of the 2,098 machinists, 119 of the 1,391 gardeners, 106 of the 1,331 locomotive, marine, and stationary engineers, 81 of the 1,169 stokers, and 78 of the 1,006 milliners.

TABLE 4.—Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts, 1908–1912:
By Races, Arranged in Order of Number of Immigrants in 1912.

RACES OR PEOPLES.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1908–1912
Italian (south),	8,155	13,049	16,182	13,318	12,611	63,315
Polish,	6,062	8,151	9,551	6,152	7,988	37,904
Irish,	6,335	5,639	6,579	6,899	5,866	31,318
English,	5,275	4,379	7,405	7,149	5,552	29,760
Hebrew,	6,481	3,667	4,693	5,361	5,097	25,299
Portuguese,	3,379	2,897	4,223	3,862	4,967	19,333
Greek,	4,116	3,202	5,787	5,223	4,561	22,889
French,	1,431	4,383	5,171	3,217	3,160	17,362
Scotch,	1,913	1,770	3,108	3,073	3,030	12,894
Russian,	1,478	959	1,274	1,673	2,673	8,057
Lithuanian,	2,113	2,612	3,453	2,555	2,472	13,235
Scandinavian,	1,803	1,917	3,223	2,754	1,953	11,650
Italian (north),	1,554	1,651	2,478	1,753	1,529	8,965
Armenian,	1,040	1,099	1,603	758	1,375	5,875
African (black),	996	739	937	1,341	1,290	5,303
Finnish,	1,052	1,910	2,549	1,473	1,209	8,193
Others,	4,120	3,173	4,445	4,220	4,838	20,796
Totals,	57,303	61,197	82,666	70,811	70,171	342,148

Emigrant Aliens — 1912.

Table 4 shows by races for each of the five years, 1908 to 1912, the number of immigrant aliens destined for Massachusetts with the corresponding total for the period. The net decrease in the number of those destined for Massachusetts in 1912 as compared with the number in 1911 was only 640, while the corresponding falling off in 1912 as compared with 1907 (the record year) was 15,412. The decrease in the number admitted to the United States in 1912 as compared with 1911 was 40,415, and as compared with 1907 (the record year) was 447,177. The greatest decreases by races in the numbers destined for Massachusetts in 1912 as compared with 1911 were: English, 1,597, or 22.3 per cent; Irish, 1,033, or 15 per cent; Scandinavian, 801, or 29.1 per cent; Italian (south), 707, or 5.3 per cent; and Greek, 662, or 12.7 per cent.

There were four races whose numbers destined for Massachusetts showed notable increases in 1912 as compared with 1911, the Russians showing an unusual gain of 1,000, or 59.8 per cent; the Polish, 1,836, or 29.8 per cent; the Portuguese, 1,105, or 28.6 per cent; and the Armenian, 617, or 81.4 per cent.

The races admitted to the United States which showed large decreases in numbers were: Italian (south), 23,808; Scandinavian, 14,258; Hebrew, 10,628; English, 7,569; Irish, 6,324; Greek, 5,455; and Scotch, 5,332. The races whose numbers were greatly increased were: Polish, 13,717; Russian, 3,837; Armenian, 2,130; and Portuguese, 1,934.

3. EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM MASSACHUSETTS.

Data showing the number of emigrant aliens who departed from the United States and from Massachusetts in 1912, classified by races or peoples, with comparative totals and corresponding percentages for the four years, 1908-1911, are presented in Table 5.

The total number of emigrant aliens who departed from the United States in 1912 was 333,262, of which number 15,406, or 4.6 per cent, departed from Massachusetts. The net increase in the alien population of the United States (represented by excess of immigration over emigration) during the year 1912 was 504,910, no deduction being made, however, for the number of naturalized citizens who left this country for permanent residence abroad. On the basis of the total population of the country as determined by the Census of 1910, the net addition to the population of the United States through immigration was less than one-half of one per cent in 1912. Corresponding data for Massachusetts show that the net gain in population

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(represented by immigration in excess of emigration) was 54,765, or somewhat less than two per cent.

There were 4,766 Italians (south) who left Massachusetts in 1912, the largest number of any race, but these represented only 4.9 per cent of the 96,881 Italians (south) leaving the United States. On the other hand the Portuguese, of whom only 1,019 departed from Massachusetts, constituted 58.3 per cent of the 1,747 leaving the United States. Attention has already been called to the fact that 52.8 per cent of the Portuguese admitted to this country in 1912 were destined for Massachusetts. Several other races also showed large percentages of emigration from Massachusetts; thus 22.8 per cent of the Armenians who departed from the United States were from Massachusetts, and corresponding percentages for other races were: Turkish, 20.9; African (black), 18.3; Lithuanian, 14.5; and Syrian, 11.7.

The races showing each over 1,000 emigrants from Massachusetts in 1912 were: Italians (south), 4,766; Polish, 2,502; Greek, 1,267; and Portuguese, 1,019. There were several races not specified in Table 5 which showed a large emigration from the United States, but of which races comparatively few were from Massachusetts, such as the Magyars, of whom 4,560, or 25.9 per cent, left Pennsylvania; 2,848, or 16.2 per cent, left New Jersey; 2,876, or 16.4 per cent, left Ohio; and 2,502, or 14.2 per cent, left New York, while only 23 departed from Massachusetts. Croatians and Slovenians to the number of 13,963 left the United States, only 27 of whom departed from Massachusetts, 4,009, or 28.7 per cent, from Pennsylvania, and over a thousand each from Minnesota (1,068), New York (1,168), and Ohio (1,288). Of 12,526 Slovaks, 6,222, or 49.7 per cent, left Pennsylvania, and only 44 left Massachusetts. There were also 7,349 Bulgarians, Servians, and Montenegrins, 5,824 Roumanians, and 5,521 Ruthenians (Russniak), of whom 48, 10, and 48 respectively left this State, while large numbers left Ohio and Pennsylvania.

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TABLE 5.—Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts and from the United States, and Averages for the Years 1908–1911, with Percentages¹: By Races.

RACES OR PEOPLES.	1912			ANNUAL AVERAGES — 1908–1911 ²		
	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States	Percentages of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States who Departed from Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States	Percentages of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States who Departed from Massachusetts
Italian (south),	4,766	96,881	4.9	5,030	80,347	6.3
Polish,	2,502	37,764	6.6	2,004	28,713	7.0
Greek,	1,267	13,323	9.5	1,064	8,247	12.9
Portuguese,	1,019	1,747	58.3	585	1,002	58.4
Italian (north),	808	13,006	6.2	648	15,951	4.1
English,	790	10,341	7.6	514	6,580	7.8
Lithuanian,	602	4,141	14.5	350	2,405	14.5
Scandinavian,	421	10,380	4.1	239	6,532	3.7
Russian,	335	9,744	4.0	282	6,688	4.2
Irish,	383	4,086	9.4	319	2,568	12.4
Finnish,	300	4,148	7.2	200	2,596	7.7
Turkish,	286	1,366	20.9	169	1,173	14.4
African (black),	236	1,288	18.3	237	958	24.7
Scotch,	229	3,456	6.6	178	2,072	8.6
French,	219	4,189	5.2	147	3,339	4.4
German,	174	15,026	1.2	184	14,126	1.3
Armenian,	164	718	22.8	156	579	27.0
Hebrew,	142	7,418	1.9	179	6,474	2.8
Chinese,	133	2,549	5.2	52	3,099	1.7
Syrian,	114	972	11.7	193	1,289	15.0
Others,	466	75,518	0.6	586	70,492	0.8
Unknown, ³	—	³ 15,201	—	—	³ 14,514	—
Totals,	15,406	333,262	4.6	13,316	279,744	4.8

¹ The number of Emigrant Aliens was presented in 1908, for the first time, in the Reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration.

² It was possible only to compare the totals of the year 1912 with the four-year period 1908–1911 instead of with a five-year period, as in the case of the immigrant aliens, since no tabulation showing the number of emigrant aliens prior to 1908 is available.

³ United States residence unknown; left United States via Canadian border; reported by Canadian Government.

The net increase or decrease in the alien population of Massachusetts represented by the excess of immigration over emigration is shown, by race, in Table 6. The largest net gains were: Italian (south), 7,845; Polish, 5,486; Irish, 5,483; Hebrew, 4,955; English, 4,762; Portuguese, 3,948; and Greek, 3,294. In the case of the Chinese there was a net decrease of 19, that being the only race which showed a larger number of emigrant aliens departing from Massachusetts than immigrant aliens destined for this State.

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TABLE 6.—Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for and Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts in 1912 and Averages for the Period 1908-1912: By Races.

RACES OR PEOPLES.	1912			Annual Average Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts 1908-1912	In-crease (+) or Decrease (-) of Immigrants over Emigrants for five years 1908-1912	Annual Average In-crease (+) or Decrease (-) in Immigrants over Emigrants 1908-1912
	Number of Immigrant Aliens Destined for Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts	In-crease (+) or Decrease (-) in Immigrants over Emigrants			
Italian (south),	12,611	4,766	+7,845	4,977	+38,428	+7,686
Polish,	7,988	2,502	+5,486	2,103	+27,387	+5,473
Greek,	4,561	1,267	+3,294	1,105	+17,365	+3,473
Portuguese,	4,967	1,019	+3,948	672	+15,974	+3,195
Italian (north),	1,529	808	+721	680	+5,566	+1,113
English,	5,552	790	+4,762	569	+26,916	+5,383
Lithuanian,	2,472	602	+1,870	400	+11,235	+2,247
Scandinavian,	1,953	421	+1,532	275	+10,273	+2,055
Russian,	2,673	385	+2,288	303	+6,543	+1,308
Irish,	5,866	883	+5,483	332	+29,659	+5,932
Finnish,	1,209	300	+909	220	+7,093	+1,419
Turkish,	500	286	+214	192	+780	+156
African (black),	1,290	236	+1,054	237	+4,119	+823
Scotch,	3,030	229	+2,801	188	+11,952	+2,391
French,	3,160	219	+2,941	161	+16,556	+3,311
German,	885	174	+711	182	+3,644	+729
Armenian,	1,375	164	+1,211	158	+5,085	+1,017
Hebrew,	5,097	142	+4,955	172	+24,441	+4,888
Chinese,	114	133	-19	68	-10	-2
Syrian,	838	114	+724	177	+3,186	+637
Others,	2,501	466	+2,035	562	+7,288	+1,458
Totals,	70,171	15,406	+54,765	13,733	+273,480	+54,697

The number of emigrant aliens who departed from this State and from the United States in 1912 and during the five-year period 1908-1912 is given, by occupations, in Table 7.

There were 182 aliens having professions who left Massachusetts, or 6.0 per cent of the 3,056 who left the United States. Referring to Table 3, one will note that 658 such aliens entered this State, making a net gain of 476.

The number of skilled workmen who departed from Massachusetts was 2,002 in 1912 as compared with 10,829 who entered the State during the same year. Textile workers, not elsewhere specified, left to the number of 411, this being 54.4 per cent of the total number in this class who departed from the United States; the number of weavers and spinners leaving Massachusetts was 200, or 41.5 per cent of all weavers and spinners leaving the United States; and 193 shoemakers departed from Massachusetts, constituting 17.2 per cent of the entire number who departed from the United States.

There were 10,570 emigrant aliens classed under miscellaneous or unskilled occupations who departed from Massachusetts in 1912 as compared with 40,687 such aliens who were destined for this State in the same year. Laborers,

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numbering 8,791, ranked as the first group among the unskilled workmen who left Massachusetts, and this seems a large number in view of the fact that only 12,643 such workmen entered in 1912. The unskilled constituted 68.6 per cent of the total number who departed from Massachusetts, whereas the unskilled constituted 58.0 per cent of the total number of immigrant aliens who were destined for Massachusetts in 1912.

TABLE 7.—*Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts and from the United States in 1912, and Averages for the Years¹ 1908–1911 with Percentages: By Races.*

OCCUPATIONS.	1912			ANNUAL AVERAGES — 1908–1911 ¹		
	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States	Percentages of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States who Departed from Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from Massachusetts	Number of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States	Percentages of Emigrant Aliens Departed from the United States who Departed from Massachusetts
<i>Professional.</i>						
Teachers,	182	3,056	6.0	102	2,547	4.0
Engineers (professional),	49	517	9.5	28	374	7.4
Musicians,	23	443	5.2	10	333	2.9
Actors,	18	281	6.4	10	293	3.6
Clergy,	14	325	4.3	4	161	2.2
Physicians,	13	349	3.7	11	236	4.7
Others,	11	131	8.4	6	142	4.2
	54	1,010	5.3	33	1,008	3.3
<i>Skilled.</i>						
Textile workers (n. s.),	2,902	35,898	5.6	1,351	28,692	4.7
Weavers and spinners,	411	756	54.4	233	404	57.5
Shoemakers,	200	482	41.5	128	343	37.4
Tailors,	193	1,123	17.2	92	854	10.7
Carpenters and joiners,	121	2,650	4.6	71	2,166	3.3
Clerks and accountants,	115	2,081	5.5	86	1,930	4.4
Barbers and hairdressers,	93	1,850	5.0	72	1,659	4.4
Bakers,	84	676	12.4	42	602	7.1
Machinists,	73	650	11.2	27	547	5.0
Masons,	72	883	8.2	56	637	8.8
Dressmakers,	59	731	8.1	40	775	5.1
Seamstresses,	45	516	8.7	30	496	6.1
Stonecutters,	40	257	15.6	42	216	19.4
Iron and steel workers,	35	298	11.7	18	203	8.9
Blacksmiths,	33	497	6.6	21	363	5.7
Others,	30	492	6.1	26	452	5.8
	398	21,956	1.8	367	17,045	2.2
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>						
Laborers,	10,570	244,827	4.3	9,535	192,991	4.9
Servants,	8,791	209,279	4.2	8,315	165,488	5.0
Merchants and dealers,	906	13,449	6.7	676	9,573	7.1
Farm laborers,	250	5,654	4.4	168	4,694	3.6
Farmers,	145	3,978	3.6	53	4,571	1.2
Others,	111	7,807	1.4	108	5,564	1.9
	367	4,660	7.9	215	3,096	6.9
<i>No occupation (including women and children),</i>	2,652	49,481	5.4	2,328	37,522	6.2
<i>Unknown,</i>	—	—	—	—	17,992 ²	—
Totals,	15,406	333,262	4.6	13,316	279,744	4.8

¹ The number of Emigrant Aliens was presented in 1908 for the first time in the Reports of the Commissioner-General of Immigration.

² Occupations and residence unknown; left United States via Canadian border; reported by Canadian Government.

Immigrants in Cities and Industries.

II. IMMIGRANTS IN CITIES AND INDUSTRIES.

1. INTRODUCTORY.

The information presented herewith consists of data taken from Volumes 10, 12, 26, 34, and 36 of the Reports of the United States Immigration Commission created by Act of Congress in 1907. The general living conditions in certain cities and industries were exhaustively studied by the Commission in 1908 and 1909. An investigation at the present time would probably not disclose any fundamental changes in the general housing and living conditions of the immigrant population aside from changes in the location of the several immigrant colonies. In preparing this abstract of the principal facts ascertained by the Commission relative to the living conditions and the economic status of that portion of the immigrant population included in the Commission's study of Boston and of other cities of Massachusetts, the Bureau has reprinted, in most instances, the exact wording of the original text, in so far as the portions reprinted are complete in themselves.¹ It is to be understood that the reprinted portions do not constitute continuous sections of the original report, but have been selected from various sections of the volumes referred to, the attempt being made merely to reprint the more suggestive results of the Commission's investigations in those phases of its inquiry covered by the title of this article.

In the following quoted paragraphs the text refers to all of the cities included in the Commission's investigation rather than to Boston alone.

(a) *Purpose of Investigation.*

Congestion of immigrants in large cities has long been considered one of the most unfavorable features of the modern problem of immigration. The Commission, convinced of the importance of this phase of the problem, inaugurated an investigation of living conditions among the residents of some of the most crowded quarters of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Cleveland, Buffalo, and Milwaukee. The purpose of the inquiry was to determine to what extent congestion actually prevails among immigrants in cities and the conditions peculiar to particular cities and races, and also to find generally the economic and social status of the city-dwelling immigrant.

All information was secured through personal visits by agents of the Commission. The investigation covers 10,206 households, comprising 51,006 individuals. Emphasis must be placed upon the fact that this is a study of congested or poor localities, and comparison of races should be made with this limitation in mind. . . .

¹ All matter in smaller type has been quoted from the Commission's reports except certain clauses enclosed in brackets which have been added by this Bureau.

Immigrants in Cities and Industries.*(b) Results of Investigation.*

[The most important results of the investigation in these seven cities were as follows:]

The search for immigrant races in congested districts revealed the fact that the population of such districts consists predominantly of races representing recent immigration. . . . Forty-eight of every 100 foreign-born male heads of households studied have come to the United States within the past 10 years, and 21 of every 100 have come within five years. . . . Immigration to the United States has been, on the part of the immigrants in the districts studied, largely a migration from country to city of people unfamiliar with urban conditions. . . . Nearly one-tenth of all the families investigated own their homes. . . . Twenty-six households in every 100 studied keep boarders or lodgers. . . . Forty-five in every 100 of the homes studied are kept in good condition, and 84 in every 100 are kept in either good or fair condition. . . . Sanitary equipment depends primarily on the city. . . . In the households investigated the average number of persons per 100 rooms is 134, and per 100 sleeping rooms 232. The cities may be arranged in regard to crowding in the following order: Boston, 144 persons per 100 rooms; Philadelphia, 141; Cleveland, 140; New York, 139; Buffalo, 133; Chicago, 126; Milwaukee, 114. . . . Rent among households studied is considerably higher in the Atlantic coast cities than in the cities on the Great Lakes. . . . A great majority of foreign-born male heads of households who came to the United States before reaching 14 years of age are now able to speak English and to read and write. . . . The great majority of immigrants in the districts studied have come to join relatives or friends. . . .

(c) Method and Scope.

In undertaking an investigation which was to cover over 10,000 households, the Commission felt that it must not attempt to investigate technical details of tenement-house construction or of sanitary conditions. It aimed simply at obtaining the most essential general facts about the lives of the immigrants in large cities. . . . Within each city the unit of investigation was a block or, more accurately, a frontage; that is, one side of a street between two other streets. The plan was to select a certain number of such blocks and then to secure information from every family living within their limits. The blocks were selected on the double principle of congestion and racial homogeneity; that is, an effort was made to study in each city the most crowded blocks inhabited as nearly as possible by members of one race. In determining congestion, two elements were taken into consideration — the number of households per lot and the general condition of the houses, the blocks inhabited by the largest number of households per lot and consisting of the poorest representative dwellings being chosen for study. It was comparatively easy to find the most congested districts; the building and health departments of the cities, charitable institutions, and social settlements are well informed as to the location of these districts. The greatest difficulty was experienced in finding racial uniformity in the population of the blocks. Under the constantly changing conditions of the cities it is no easy matter to find blocks inhabited largely by one race, and in some instances a block tentatively selected

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as being inhabited by members of one race proved, on closer examination, to be distinctly cosmopolitan, or inhabited by another race the members of which had recently displaced the previous residents. In some cases the final canvass disclosed that the race that was believed to predominate in a certain district formed in reality only a minority of the households; when such districts are included in the study it is because the race in question was not to be found in isolated colonies in the given city. In a few cases all the families belonging to one race and living in a limited area were studied and families of other races were omitted. In the search for racial uniformity the Commission's agents supplemented the information obtained from city authorities and social workers by interviewing physicians, district nurses, lawyers, clergymen, storekeepers, saloon keepers, letter carriers, and janitors — in a word, all persons who were likely to know the people in their neighborhood. Much difficulty was encountered in finding blocks inhabited by Germans, Irish, and Swedes, who are older immigrants and have had opportunities of scattering throughout the cities. As regards households whose heads are native-born white of native father, it proved to be impossible to study these in homogeneous blocks. The only homogeneous blocks discovered represented an economic level far in advance of that of the other families investigated, and since it was felt that Americans of native white parentage should be included in the study for purposes of comparison, in some cities selected families living in poorer neighborhoods were visited by the agents. It is a significant fact that the search for American families in crowded districts of American cities was attended with considerable difficulties.

2. IMMIGRANTS IN BOSTON.¹**A. INTRODUCTORY.**

“Congestion in Boston is largely the result of topographical conditions in certain sections of the city and of the adaptation for the use of several households of houses which were constructed as residences for single families. . . . Besides the North End and the West End, which are the two most congested districts of Boston, the Commission has investigated a portion of the South End, which is located in the immediate vicinity of the business section of the city, and of Roxbury and of South Boston, which present different problems from the other districts studied in Boston.”

B. COMPOSITION OF POPULATION STUDIED.**(a) *Nativity and Race.***

[The total number of households in Boston from which detailed information was obtained was 1,416, representing 7,211 persons. For 7,092 of these persons detailed information was secured. The following table shows the distribution of this number by general nativity and race of the head of household:]

¹ From Vol. 26 of the Report of the United States Immigration Commission.

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TABLE 8.—*Number of Households Studied and Persons for whom Detailed Information was Secured in the City of Boston: By General Nativity and Race of Head of Household.*

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE OF HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD.	Number of Households	Per-centages of Total Number	PERSONS IN HOUSEHOLDS		PERSONS FOR WHOM DETAILED INFORMATION WAS SECURED	
			Number	Per-centages of Total	Number	Per-centages of Total
All Races.	1,416	100.0	7,211	100.0	7,092	100.0
Native Born.	199	14.1	812	11.3	796	11.2
Native born of native father: white,	123	8.7	485	6.7	476	6.7
Native born of foreign father: Irish,	76	5.4	327	4.5	320	4.5
Foreign Born.	1,217	85.9	6,399	88.7	6,296	88.8
Greek,	49	3.5	235	3.3	225	3.2
Hebrews, Russian,	249	17.6	1,314	18.2	1,310	18.5
Irish,	205	14.5	985	13.7	950	13.4
Italian (south),	326	23.0	1,799	24.9	1,786	25.2
Lithuanian,	171	12.1	974	13.5	952	13.4
Polish,	104	7.3	674	9.3	655	9.2
Syrian,	113	8.0	418	5.8	418	5.9

In addition to the native white of native father and the second generation Irish, the following foreign households, in order of their numerical importance, have been studied in Boston: South Italians, Russian Hebrews, Irish, Lithuanians, Syrians, Poles, and Greeks.

As regards country of birth, which it is necessary to consider only for the Hebrews and Poles, the fact is that all of the Hebrews are natives of Russia, while . . . over three-fourths, 76 per cent, of all the Poles studied in Boston are natives of Russia, 21.2 per cent are natives of Austria-Hungary, and 2.9 per cent are natives of Germany. . . . The largest proportion of all Italian heads of households come from the Province of Campania, the next largest from Sicily, and the next from Abruzzi and Molise. . . .

Of the total of 1,416 households studied in Boston, 1,217 are foreign and 199 native. Of the native households 123 are American and 76 second-generation Irish. Detailed information was secured for 7,092 persons, of whom 6,296 were in households whose heads were foreign-born and 796 in households whose heads were native-born. In general, then, more than seven-eighths of the population studied in Boston live in foreign households. . . . Where the enumeration is by nativity of head of household, the total native-born aggregate 11.2 per cent of the entire number of persons for whom detailed information was secured. . . . Where the enumeration is by nativity of individual, the native-born are 38.2 per cent of the whole number of persons. The higher per cent is largely due to the presence of native-born children in immigrant households. The largest proportion of persons of native birth is among the Irish, which is the race with heads of households having the longest residence in the United States. The

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second largest proportion is among the South Italians, the race representing on the whole the second earliest immigration, and the third highest per cent is among the Russian Hebrews, the third in point of length of residence in this country. . . .

(b) Sex.

Of the total of [7,092] persons for whom detailed information was secured in Boston, 54.6 per cent are males and 45.4 per cent females. Among the native-born the percentage of males is 46.5 and among the foreign-born 55.7. Of the foreign races all except the Irish and the Syrians have more males than females. The proportion is exceptionally high among the Greeks, of whom 83.6 per cent are male, and the Lithuanians, among whom the proportion of males is 60.4 per cent. The percentage is 58.1 among the South Italians, 55.6 among the Poles, and 50.8 among the Russian Hebrews. . . .

(c) Age.

There are more young persons under 20 and more persons of the most active age, namely, between 20 and 44, among immigrants than natives, while the proportion of persons 45 and over is almost twice as high among the native-born as among the foreign-born. This is a normal difference; the immigrants bring over comparatively few old persons, and therefore in foreign households the proportion of persons 45 years of age or over is smaller than in households of the native-born. . . .

(d) Conjugal Condition.

Of the total number of 4,009 persons 20 years of age or over, who report data on conjugal condition, 66 per cent are married, 26.9 per cent are single, and 7.1 per cent are widowed. The proportion of single persons is much higher among the males than among the females, and the proportion of married and widowed persons is higher among the females than among the males.

There are fewer single persons among the adult foreign-born than among the adult native-born, the proportions being 25.1 per cent among the foreign and 38.2 among the native-born. The difference is very pronounced among females, of whom 35.8 per cent are single among the native-born and only 11 per cent among the foreign-born. It is clear from these figures that the immigrants marry somewhat younger than the native-born and, furthermore, that this is more noticeable among the women than among the men. It must be added that it is not an unusual thing for immigrant girls to come here in order either to join their husbands or intended husbands or to improve their opportunity of finding husbands by coming to a community where the proportion of males is high.

The only foreign race having a large proportion, 66.1 per cent, of single persons among the adults, is the Greek; the proportion of single Greek males is

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76.3 per cent, while there are no single females over 20 years of age. The proportion of unmarried women is lower than that of unmarried men among all of the foreign races studied in Boston.

The figures indicate that the immigrant population of the districts studied in Boston is more settled than the native population, which contains a considerable proportion of single men and women who have come to the city to earn a living. The immigrant men have in most cases come to stay, and have generally sent for their wives or sweethearts, and a large proportion of the women have come to join their husbands or in order to marry. . . .

(e) Years in the United States.

Of the 4,343 foreign-born persons studied in Boston who report the date of their arrival in the United States, 46 per cent have been here less than five years, 70.5 per cent less than 10 years, and 89.6 per cent less than 20 years.

The Greeks, the Poles, the Syrians, and the Lithuanians are the most recent immigrants studied in Boston. The Hebrews and the South Italians come next, and the Irish are the oldest residents.

C. LIVING CONDITIONS.*(a) Congestion.*

Of the households studied in Boston, 6.4 per cent occupy apartments of one room, 15.6 per cent occupy apartments of two rooms, 31.6 per cent three rooms, 27.8 per cent four rooms, 11.4 per cent five rooms, 3.7 per cent six rooms, and 3.5 per cent seven rooms or more. It will be seen that apartments of three and of four rooms together constitute about three-fifths of the entire number studied. One, two, and three-room apartments are more common among foreign than among native households, while apartments of four rooms or more occur more frequently among native households.

The Syrians occupy one-room apartments in 46 per cent of all cases and two-room apartments in 38.1 per cent of all cases. None of the other races have as high a proportion of small apartments, the Greeks, with 18.4 per cent of one-room and 28.6 per cent of two-room apartments, ranking second in this respect. All of the other races live in three or four-room apartments in the majority of cases. The proportion of apartments of six rooms or more is by far the highest among the Irish, among whom it reaches 16.6 per cent. . . .

The foreign-born show a considerably higher percentage of large households and a considerably lower percentage of small households than the native-born.

Nearly half of the households of the native-born white of native father and the second-generation Irish, and slightly more than half of the Greek and Syrian households consist of fewer than four persons. The two native races and the Syrians also report low percentages of households, consisting of seven or more

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persons; the Greeks, with 26.6 per cent of households consisting of seven or more persons, have twice as great a proportion of large households as any one of the other three races with low percentages. The highest percentage of large households is found among the Poles, who report only 8.7 per cent of households consisting of fewer than four persons and 44.2 per cent of households consisting of seven or more persons. The Lithuanians rank second in proportion of large households and next to the lowest in the proportion of small households. . . .

The highest degree of congestion in Boston is found among the Syrians; a study of the percentages shows that in three households out of four the Syrians average two or more persons per room, in one household out of three, three or more persons per room, and in one household out of 10, four or more persons per room. The next highest degree of crowding is found among the Poles, but only slightly more than one-half of all Polish households average two or more persons per room, only one-eighth three or more persons per room, and only one out of a hundred households averages four or more persons per room. The South Italians have a lower average per room than the Poles, but there are more individual cases of crowding among them than among the Poles, 3.1 per cent of the South Italian households averaging four or more persons per room. The Greeks, with 98 per cent of households reporting one or more persons per room, show approximately the same percentages as the Syrians, but show, on the whole, smaller percentages of households living in very crowded apartments than do the Syrians, the Poles, or the South Italians.

Comparatively little congestion is found among the native-born white of native father, the second generation Irish, the Irish of foreign birth, and the Russian Hebrews. No one of these races reports any households with as many as four persons per room. . . .

The foreign-born show considerably greater congestion in sleeping rooms than do the native-born. Especially high degrees of congestion are found among the Syrians and the South Italians. More than 85 per cent of the households of these two races report two or more persons per sleeping room; slightly more than 45 per cent report three or more persons per sleeping room, and nearly one-fifth of the households of each race report four or more persons per sleeping room. The Poles rank third in the degree of congestion in sleeping rooms. The least congestion is found in the households of the native-born white of native father and the first and second-generation Irish. A little more than half of the households of these races report two or more persons per sleeping room, and the highest percentage of households having three or more persons per sleeping room is 17.1 per cent among the second-generation Irish. . . .

Several races which show relatively low averages in persons per room show relatively high averages in persons per sleeping room, indicating a tendency among households in certain races to use few sleeping rooms so that rooms may be reserved for other purposes. For example, the Poles show a higher average

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number of persons per room than the South Italians, but a lower average number of persons per sleeping room. . . .

Of the households studied in Boston 21.4 per cent use all their rooms to sleep in, 48 per cent reserve one room, and 22.5 per cent reserve two rooms for other living purposes. The proportion of households regularly using all of the rooms to sleep in is 24 per cent among the foreign and six per cent among the native households. The proportion of households reserving but one room for other purposes is also much higher among immigrants than among natives, while the proportion of native households reserving two rooms for other purposes than sleeping is more than twice as great as the corresponding proportion of foreign households. . . .

The Syrians report 74.3 per cent of all households as regularly sleeping in all rooms, nearly twice as large a proportion as is shown by any other race. . . . The native-born white of native father, the second-generation Irish, and the Irish of foreign birth reserve relatively large numbers of rooms for purposes other than sleeping; less than 10 per cent of the households of these races sleep in all rooms, and approximately 40 per cent reserve two or more rooms for other purposes. The Russian Hebrews rank second among the foreign-born in the proportion of households reserving a relatively large number of rooms for household purposes other than sleeping. . . .

(b) Boarders and Lodgers.

A high degree of crowding is much less serious when due to large families than when caused by the presence of strangers in the household. . . .

The facts regarding boarders and lodgers may be summed up as follows:

1. About one-third of the foreign households and about one-ninth of the native households studied in Boston keep boarders or lodgers. Among the foreign households by far the highest proportions, over two thirds, are found among the Poles and the Lithuanians, and the lowest among the Greek, the Irish, and the Syrian households. The Russian Hebrews and the South Italians keep boarders or lodgers in about 30 per cent of all cases; but among the South Italians the proportion of single families without boarders or lodgers is somewhat lower than among the Russian Hebrews, owing to the custom of joint occupancy of an apartment which is found in one-eighth of the South Italian households.

2. The proportion of households that keep boarders or lodgers is decidedly less where the head of the household has resided in this country for 10 years or more than where the head has been here for less than 10 years.

3. The average number of boarders or lodgers in households keeping boarders or lodgers is higher among immigrants than among the native-born, and is higher in Polish and Lithuanian households than elsewhere.

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(c) *Home Work.*

In only 49 of the 1,416 households studied was home work found. . . . Of the native households six per cent and of the foreign three per cent carry on gainful employment within the apartment. The highest proportions are among the native-born white of native father and the South Italians; among all races the proportions are slight. . . . The occupations in apartments are in most cases pursued by the wife or the head or by the widowed head of a household. In only one apartment is a male member of the household employed. . . . The principal occupations found in apartments are tailoring, dressmaking, and sewing. Laundry work is found in seven and other occupations in five households. . . .

(d) *Care and Equipment of Home.*

All of the households studied in Boston have a water supply from pipes inside the houses, and 90.5 per cent have a separate source of water supply. . . . The Hebrews, the Irish, the Poles, and the Lithuanians have a separate water supply in all or nearly all cases; the Italians are not so well equipped, and the Greeks are worse off in this respect than the Italians. Still worse conditions are found among the Syrian of whom fewer than half have a separate water supply, 25.7 per cent have one source of water supply for two households, 22.1 per cent have one for three households, and 9.7 per cent have one for four or more households. The Syrians live in the Hudson street district, which is old and not adapted to tenement-house use. There is generally one source of water supply to a house, and when five or six households live in one dwelling they are obliged to share the accommodations that were meant for one family.

All but one of the households studied in Boston have access to flush toilets. This household is second-generation Irish. . . .

Of the 1,412 households in Boston that report data on this subject, 40.3 per cent have separate toilets, 29.9 per cent share their toilets with one other household, 16.9 per cent with two other households, 5.5 per cent with three other households, three per cent with four other households, 2.2 per cent with five, one per cent with six, 1.1 per cent with seven, and 0.2 per cent with nine other households. The figures show in general that the subdividing of one family dwelling for the use of several households results often in an inadequate number of toilets for the number of households living there. . . .

Native households are considerably better off in this respect than foreign households. . . . By far the worst condition in this respect is found among the Syrians, among whom over nine-tenths share their toilet with two or more households; 17.9 per cent share their toilets with three, 9.8 per cent with four, 20.5 per cent with five, 6.3 per cent with six, 13.4 per cent with seven, and 2.7 per cent with nine other households. . . . The Syrians, the Greeks, and the South Italians, who have on the whole the poorest sanitary equipment, are among the

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races that pay the highest rents per room. This suggests that inertia and racial cohesion may keep the tenants in their present locations in spite of the fact that they can secure better accommodations for less money in other parts of the city. It is reasonable to suppose, furthermore, that the owners of the houses, rather than lose profitable tenants, would make necessary improvements if the demands on the part of the tenants were persistent enough. It seems fair to say that certain races attach somewhat less importance to sanitary equipment than do others. . . .

There are only 16 basement dwellings in the houses investigated in Boston, all of which are occupied by foreign households and half of which are occupied by Russian Hebrews. . . .

The proportion of households taking good care of their apartments is 35.1 per cent, that taking fair care is 47.5 per cent, that taking bad care is 14.5 per cent, and that taking very bad care is three per cent. The homes of the native-born are kept in good condition in 54.8 per cent of the cases, and those of the foreign-born in 31.8 per cent; bad or very bad conditions are found in 19 per cent of the foreign and in 8.1 per cent of the native households. . . .

The Russian Hebrews, the South Italians, and the Syrians show relatively high proportions of apartments with good or fair care. The Greeks, Poles, and Lithuanians follow, and the Irish have the lowest percentage of clean or fairly clean homes.

(e) Home Ownership and Rent.

. . . In general, only a small proportion [4.4 per cent] of the families studied in Boston own their homes; the great mass of them are tenants. . . .

Of the 1,292 households 43.5 per cent pay under \$10 per month for their apartments and 70.7 per cent pay under \$12.50 a month. The average rent per apartment is \$10.72. The households of immigrants pay on an average \$10.55; native households average \$11.87. That the lower average rent paid by the foreign-born is not due to a comparatively small number of households paying very low rents is indicated by the fact that the per cent of foreign-born paying under each specified amount is in every case higher than the corresponding per cent of native-born. Syrian households pay, on the whole, lower rents than any other race. . . .

The average monthly rent per room for all the households . . . is \$3.13, the average for the foreign households is \$3.18, and for the native households \$2.83. . . .

The Greeks pay on the average more than twice as much rent as do the Irish. This exceptionally high rent for the Greeks is presumably due in part to the fact that many of them use their rooms for storing the fruit they peddle.

The amount of rent paid by the different races depends largely on the location of the colony; thus the South Italians live in the North End, the Russian Hebrews in the West End, and the Syrians in the South End. All of these neigh-

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borhoods are in the crowded sections of the city and are close to the business center. On the other hand, a great majority of the Poles, the Lithuanians and the Irish live in South Boston, where rents are naturally cheaper. . . .

A comparison of the average rent per room paid by the native-born white of native father with the average rents per room paid by the Greeks and the Russian Hebrews indicates that the households of the native-born white of native father secure relatively larger apartments for a given expenditure of money than do the other two races. . . .

D. ECONOMIC STATUS.*(a) Occupation in the United States and Abroad.*

In a study of the economic conditions prevailing among immigrants in cities it is of importance to know something of the extent to which immigration has involved an industrial transition. For male heads of households data are available regarding occupation abroad. . . .

The proportion of male heads of households engaged in farming before coming to this country is over 60 per cent among the Poles, Irish, Lithuanians, and Greeks; it is over 40 per cent among the Syrians and South Italians, and only 2.3 per cent among the Russian Hebrews. The figures indicate that, except in the case of the Hebrews, a large proportion of the foreign population studied in Boston has been an agricultural population in Europe. This population has, of course, been diverted into urban occupations on arrival in the United States. . . .

Among immigrants as a whole and among the Irish, South Italians, Lithuanians, and Poles the occupation of laborer is the most usual occupation. Of the total foreign-born 27.5 per cent, or more than one-fourth, are laborers; that is, they are engaged in unskilled work in or about factories, on the street, about buildings, etc. Of the Irish 47.2 per cent and of the Poles 46.5 per cent are laborers. Second in importance among all foreign-born and of first importance among the Russian Hebrews is the occupation of tailor, employee. . . .

About one-fifth of all the male heads of households are engaged in business on their own account. The high proportions are found among the Hebrews and Syrians, the Greeks, and the South Italians. The proportions are very low among the Lithuanians and the Irish, while none of the Polish heads of households studied are engaged in business for themselves. . . .

The number of female heads of households who are in business for themselves is 30, or 27.3 per cent of the whole number. One or more instances of women heads of households working for profits occur in every race except the Greek, Lithuanian, and Polish. . . .

Of the total of 2,639 males 16 years of age or over studied in Boston, 45.5 per cent are engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, 15.3 per cent are in trade, 11.3 per cent in domestic and personal service, 10.8 per cent in transportation, and 9.8 per cent in general labor; 1.7 per cent are otherwise employed, while

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5.2 per cent are at home, and 0.4 per cent at school. The proportion in manufacturing, in general labor, and in domestic service is higher among the foreign-born than the natives, and the proportion in trade and transportation is higher among the natives.

The Greeks are fairly evenly divided between domestic and personal service, manufactures, and trade; of the Russian Hebrews 60.4 per cent are in manufactures, 29.9 per cent in trade, and small percentages in other occupations; the highest proportion of the Irish, 27.1 per cent, is found in transportation, the next highest, 25.5 per cent, in manufacturing, 17 per cent are in general labor, 12.2 per cent in trade, and 6.9 per cent in domestic and personal service; 9.6 per cent, or almost one-tenth, of the Irish remain at home; of the South Italians 36.1 per cent are in manufactures, 26.8 per cent in general labor, 11.9 per cent in domestic and personal service, 9.2 per cent in transportation, and seven per cent in trade; among the Lithuanians a very high proportion, 68.9 per cent, are engaged in manufactures, 10.8 per cent in domestic service, eight per cent in transportation, 3.3 per cent in trade, and 2.6 per cent in general labor; among the Poles 48.5 per cent are engaged in manufactures, 15 per cent in domestic service, 13.2 per cent in transportation, 11.7 per cent in trade, and 6.8 per cent in general labor; of the Syrians 41.5 per cent are in manufactures, 39.4 per cent in trade, 7.7 per cent in domestic service, 2.8 per cent in general labor, while 0.7 per cent of them are otherwise employed, and 7.7 per cent are reported as remaining at home. . . .

Of the total number of women 16 years of age or over reporting data on occupation, 64.4 per cent are at home, and 0.6 per cent are at school. The proportion at home is 67.9 per cent among the foreign-born and 48.6 per cent among the natives. . . .

The proportion of women in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits is 17.1 per cent; among the foreign-born it is 14.9, and among the native born, 27. The proportion in domestic service is 12.9 per cent, 13 per cent among the foreign-born, and 12.1 per cent among the native-born. The per cent in trade is 4.4 for all the women, 3.6 per cent for the foreign, and 7.9 per cent for the native-born. In general, the proportion gainfully employed is greater among the native than among the foreign-born, although the proportion in domestic service is slightly higher among immigrants. The higher proportion of women at work among the native-born is due to the fact that the native women are frequently the daughters in foreign households and have no domestic responsibilities, whereas their foreign-born mothers are engaged in keeping house. . . .

Of the total number of 1,285 children between six and 16 years of age studied in Boston and reporting data on occupation, 89.3 per cent are at school, 6.5 per cent are at work, and 4.1 per cent are at home. The proportion at school is 90.7 per cent among the native-born, and 86.2 per cent among the foreign-born; the proportion at work is 5.2 per cent among the native-born, and 9.7 per cent among the foreign-born. . . .

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Hebrew, South Italian, and Lithuanian children born in the United States are in school in larger proportions than the foreign-born children of these races; Polish and Syrian children born abroad are in school in larger proportions than the native-born children of Poles and Syrians. In no case is the per cent of children at school as large as among the native-born white of native fathers. . . .

(b) Earnings.

The field work of the Commission in Boston lasted from August, 1908, until May, 1909. Some of the earlier schedules therefore are affected by the industrial depression of 1907. A majority of the schedules, however, refer to a normal year, and those that are affected are fairly evenly distributed among the different races, whose relative position is believed to be fairly well reflected by the figures. . . .

The average earnings of the 1,765 males who report complete data on the subject is \$410. The natives average \$573 a year and the foreign-born \$384. Arranged in descending order the averages for the seven numerically most important races are as follows: Irish, \$510; Lithuanian, \$402; Russian Hebrews, \$396; Polish, \$389; Syrian, \$355; Greek, \$352; and South Italian, \$338. . . .

The proportion of males earning under \$200 a year is surprisingly high among some of the races. Among the South Italians it is 29.1 per cent; among the Syrians, 21.9 per cent; among the Russian Hebrews, 19.4 per cent; among the Poles, 15.3 per cent; among the Lithuanians, 12.5 per cent; among the Irish, 11.7 per cent; and among the Greeks, 3.4 per cent. The Greeks, who show the smallest proportion of males earning less than \$200 have also the highest percentage of those earning under \$400. The proportion earning under \$600 is in the neighborhood of seven-eighths for the Greeks, South Italians, Lithuanians, and Poles; for the Syrians the proportion is 93.2 per cent; for the Russian Hebrews it is 82.7 per cent, and for the Irish 57.2 per cent. Only a very small proportion of the males earn above \$1,000 a year. . . .

The average earnings of female wage-earners 18 years of age or over is \$226. The average is \$296 for the native women, and \$197 for the foreign women. Arranged in descending order, by race, the average earnings of the foreign women are as follows: Irish, \$231; Syrian, \$224; Polish, \$214; Russian Hebrew, \$198; Lithuanian, \$192; and South Italian, \$160.

More than one-half of the immigrant women earn less than \$200 a year, and more than three-fourths earn less than \$300, while only one woman in 20 earns \$400 or over, and one in 40 \$500 or over.

(c) Family Income.

The chief sources of the incomes of families of the economic condition selected for study are the earnings of husband and wife, the contributions of children, the payments of boarders and lodgers, and other sources, usually rents or the contributions of relatives. Only families with earnings from wages are included in

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this study. The families of persons in business for profits, in many cases the more prosperous families, are not considered. Races which engage largely in mercantile pursuits are therefore presumably at a disadvantage in the showing made. . . . The families included in this study are classified according to the amount of the total income for the year ending at the time of the agent's visit. . . .

The average yearly income for the 925 families studied in Boston and included in the tabulation is \$582. The average is \$736 for the native and \$556 for the foreign families. Of every 100 immigrant families 20 have had incomes for the year of less than \$300, 50 have had less than \$500, 80 less than \$750, 92 less than \$1,000, and 99 less than \$1,500. The corresponding proportions of native families are in every case considerably lower. Arranged in descending order, by race, the average incomes of the immigrant families are as follows: Irish, \$730; Russian Hebrew, \$543; South Italian, \$534; Lithuanian, \$515; Polish, \$504; and Syrian, \$377.

Only nine in 100 Irish families have incomes of less than \$300, only 28 have less than \$500, and only 60 have less than \$750, while 19 have \$1,000 or over, and four have \$1,500 or over. Of the Syrian families all but one have incomes of less than \$1,000, and the proportions of Syrians with incomes under each specified amount below that sum are in every case considerably higher than for any other race. It should be recalled in this connection that 113 Syrian households are included in this study and that the small proportion of families included in the income study is due to the fact that large numbers of the Syrians are peddlers and in business for themselves. The relative standing of these 36 families can not, of course, be taken as representative of the race. . . .

Of the 921 families in Boston that report full data on sources of income 86.2 per cent derive a part or all of their income from the husband, 29.4 per cent derive all of their income from the husband, and 65.8 per cent of the entire family budget is provided for by the husbands. The proportion of families having incomes from the husbands is 87.2 per cent among the foreign-born, and 80.3 per cent among the native-born. The proportion that the husband's earnings form of the entire family income is higher among the native-born than among the foreign-born; among the former it is 70 per cent, among the latter 64.8 per cent.

The proportion of families that depend for income entirely on the husbands is 42.4 per cent among the native-born and 27.2 per cent among the foreign-born. . . .

The wives are sources of income in 16.9 per cent of the families studied; they are the sole source of income in 2.3 per cent of the families, and the earnings of the wives form 5.3 per cent of the entire family budget.

The proportion of families with incomes from the wives is 24.2 per cent among the natives and 15.7 per cent among the foreign-born. . . .

Children are sources of income in 25.5 per cent of the families studied; they are the sole source of income in 3.6 per cent, and their contributions form 15.7

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per cent of the total family budget. The proportion of families with incomes from children is 26 per cent among the foreign-born and 22.7 per cent among the native-born. . . .

The Irish and Hebrew families derive incomes from their children in large proportions of cases; the South Italians come next, then the Syrian, the Lithuanians, and the Poles. . . .

. . . Payments [by boarders and lodgers] . . . appear in the family budgets in 38.5 per cent of the cases, but are the sole means of support in only 0.5 per cent of the families, while their contributions form 8.8 per cent of the aggregate income of the families. . . .

Immigrant heads of families earn, on the whole, much less than the native-born. The proportion of foreign-born husbands earning under \$400 is 52.9 per cent, while the corresponding proportion of native-born is 18.9 per cent; the per cents earning under \$600 are 80.5 and 45.3, respectively. Syrian husbands show, on the whole, the lowest earnings. The earnings of Russian Hebrew and South Italian husbands are also very low. . . .

Of the total number of wives studied 17.1 per cent are employed outside of the home; the percentage is 24.2 among the natives and 15.9 among the foreign-born. Of the foreign-born wives the largest proportion, 28.1 per cent, are employed among the Irish; next come the South Italians with 16.4 per cent; then the Russian Hebrews with 14.7 per cent; the Syrians follow with 11.4 per cent; then come the Poles with 10.5 per cent; and finally the Lithuanians with 9.8 per cent. . . .

The proportion of wives who add to the family income by engaging in gainful employment or keeping boarders or lodgers is 49.5 per cent. In native households it is 24.3 per cent, in foreign households 53.4 per cent. . . .

The proportion of wives having employment or keeping boarders or lodgers will be seen, on the whole, to decrease as the incomes of the husbands increase, and it may be said that the employment of married women depends primarily on economic conditions and only secondarily on racial customs or preferences.

E. ASSIMILATION.

(a) Ability to Speak English.

The ability of the immigrant to speak English depends largely on his age at the time of his arrival in the United States, on the length of his residence in this country, and on the character of his occupation and his home surroundings. . . .

The Syrians show the highest per cent able to speak English; out of a total number of 102 of this race 82, or 80.4 per cent, speak English. The Greeks are next highest with 72.9 per cent. The Russian Hebrews and South Italians show about the same proportion, a little over 60 per cent. The Lithuanians and Poles report the low proportions, 56.4 per cent in the case of the former and 49.5 per cent in the case of the latter. . . .

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All of the 30 heads of households who were under 14 years of age at time of coming to the United States are able to speak English, while of the 921 who were 14 years or over at time of arrival in this country only 60.3 per cent have that ability. . . .

Of the total number of 4,368 persons studied in Boston who report in regard to their ability to speak English, 59.4 per cent speak the language. The proportion is 96.4 per cent among the natives and 53.6 per cent among the foreign-born. There is a marked difference in this respect between the foreign-born males, of whom 61.1 per cent speak English, and the foreign-born females, of whom 42.6 per cent speak English. . . .

Instances of native-born persons unable to speak the language of the country are found among the Hebrews, South Italians, Poles, and Syrians. . . .

The proportion of English-speaking persons is 38 per cent among those who have been in the United States under five years, 61.8 per cent among those who have been here from five to nine years, and 77.1 per cent among those who have been here 10 years or over. . . .

Among the immigrants who were under 14 years of age at the time of their arrival in this country, 93.3 per cent are able to speak English, while among those who were 14 years of age or over the proportion is 45.5 per cent. The difference in this respect is greater among the females than among the males, presumably because a large majority of women who come here after the expiration of their school age soon marry and remain at home, while the men who work outside their homes continue to have opportunities of learning the English language.

(b) Literacy.

Of the 5,273 persons 10 years of age or over . . . 3,706, or 70.3 per cent, are able to read and write. The natives are practically all literate, while among the foreign-born the percentage of those who are able to read and write is 61.6. Among the foreign-born males 69.2 per cent, and among the foreign-born females 50.9 per cent, are able to read and write.

Arranged in descending order, by race, the percentages of the foreign-born who are able to read and write are as follows: Greek, 92.7; Irish, 83.3; Russian Hebrews, 73.1; Polish, 63.6; Lithuanian, 58.2; Syrian, 54.1; and South Italian, 42.0.

In every case the percentage of literacy is higher among the males than among the females. The difference is great among the Syrians, the Lithuanians, the Greeks, and the Poles. . . .

The age of the immigrant at the time of his arrival in this country is a very important factor in determining his literacy. Thus, of the immigrants who were under 14 years of age at the time of their arrival, 88 per cent are able to read and write, while of those who are 14 years of age or over only 57.2 per cent are able to read and write. There is a marked difference between the two groups

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of immigrants in all the races, but the Lithuanians, the South Italians, and the Russian Hebrews show especially great differences in this respect.

The figures indicate that literacy among immigrants depends to a great extent on European conditions, and that the length of residence in the United States and especially the age at the time of the arrival of the immigrant in this country are factors in determining the proportion of literates among the foreign-born. . . .

(c) Citizenship.

Of the 519 male heads of households who have been in the United States five years or over and who were 21 years of age or over at time of coming, 107, or 20.6 per cent, are fully naturalized and 95, or 18.3 per cent, have only their first papers. The highest proportion of citizens is found among the Irish. The Russian Hebrews and South Italians show much lower percentages, and still lower are the proportions shown by the Poles, Greeks, Lithuanians, and Syrians. . . .

Of the 703 immigrants who have been in the United States five years or more and who were 21 years of age at the time of coming, 18.5 per cent are citizens and 15.4 per cent have declared their intention of becoming naturalized.

Arranged in descending order, by race, the percentages of citizens are as follows: Irish, 69.8; Russian Hebrews, 23.9; South Italian, 17.2; Syrian, 10.5; Lithuanian, 8.3; Polish, 6.3; and Greek, 2.1.

The highest proportion of persons who have taken out their first papers is found among the Russian Hebrews. The Syrians rank second in this respect. None of the 29 Poles has taken the initial step towards citizenship.

(d) Residence in the Apartment, Neighborhood, and City.

Of the 1,321 households . . . [considered] 80.8 per cent have never resided in the United States outside of Boston. The proportion is higher among the foreign households than among the native, the proportion among the former being 81.9 per cent and among the latter 73.6 per cent. . . . High proportions of households that have never lived in the United States outside of Boston are found among the Greeks, the Lithuanians, the Irish, the South Italians, and the Russian Hebrews, while the proportions are considerably lower among the Syrians and the Poles. The Syrians often travel with their merchandise and the Poles frequently engage in construction work that takes them outside of Boston.

Somewhat less than half of the households studied in Boston have lived in the neighborhood of their present residence since the time of marriage or of establishment in the United States. The proportion is 49.2 per cent among the foreign and 43.8 per cent among the native households. . . . Of the South Italian households 72.4 per cent have lived in the neighborhood where they now reside ever since their establishment in the United States, of the Polish 51 per cent, of the Lithuanian 45 per cent, of the Russian Hebrew 38 per cent, of the Syrian 37.4 per cent, and of the Irish 27.2 per cent.

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The proportion of households studied in Boston that have lived in the apartments which they now occupy since their establishment in the United States is 16.1 per cent, 17.3 per cent among the foreign, and 8.4 per cent among the native households. . . . The proportion of households that have resided in the apartments where they now live since their establishment in the United States is 24.2 per cent among the Syrians, among the Russian Hebrews 19.2 per cent, among the Lithuanians 17.2 per cent, among the South Italians 16.8 per cent, among the Poles 14.4 per cent, and among the Irish 10.9 per cent.

The character of the population of the foreign districts of Boston changes rather rapidly; the topography of the city makes it comparatively easy for the immigrants to move from crowded sections where they are obliged to pay high rents for poor accommodations to outlying districts where rents are lower and air space is not at so high a premium. The fact that most of the foreign colonies have changed their location since they first came to Boston would seem to be an indication that the foreign element in that city is likely to become absorbed in the general life of the community in a comparatively short period of time.

3. IMMIGRANTS IN INDUSTRY.

A. INTRODUCTORY.

Of the 42 volumes issued by the Immigration Commission 19 volumes have reference to immigrants in industries and two of these volumes (Numbers 10 and 12) contain information which has particular reference to industries well represented in Massachusetts. The matter selected for presentation in the following pages has been taken from Part 3, entitled "Cotton Goods Manufacturing in the North Atlantic States", from Part 4, entitled "Woolen and Worsted Manufacturing", from Part 8, entitled "Leather Manufacturing." In order to conserve space it was found necessary to substitute a brief review for numerous paragraphs which well deserved quotation. Certain significant paragraphs which are complete in themselves and which cover a wide range of inquiry have, however, been here reprinted practically in their entirety.

B. COTTON GOODS MANUFACTURING.¹

(a) *Introductory.*

Attention has been called by the Commission in the introduction to its report on "Cotton Goods Manufacturing in the North Atlantic States" to steady development of the cotton industry since 1840 in the North Atlantic States, with the exception of Rhode Island, during the period 1890 to 1900. With reference to New England the following statement appears:

¹ From Vol. 10 of the Report of the United States Commission on Immigration.

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The demand for labor growing out of the extension of the cotton goods industry [in New England] occurred simultaneously with an expansion in other lines of industry. The consequent pressure upon the labor market was too strong to be satisfied by the supply of labor of native birth, and recourse was necessarily had to sources outside of the United States. At all stages of its development, therefore, the cotton goods industry has been marked by recurring changes in the racial composition of its labor force arising from the employment of operatives of old or recent immigration. The racial displacements which have taken place within the industry as a result of the employment of immigrants and the present status of that part of the operating force which is of foreign birth are discussed in detail in the . . . [report].

In addition to historical and descriptive matter collected by the Commission, original data was secured for 66,800 wage-earners or "40.5 per cent of all the employees of the industry in 1905 in the States covered by the investigation". While the greater part of the report deals with the industry as a whole, certain cotton goods manufacturing centers have been selected by the Commission for purposes of special investigation. Three of these centers specially considered are cities in Massachusetts and from the detailed information published for these three cities (Fall River, New Bedford, and Lowell) the principal data have been selected for presentation in this review. In conformity with the method adopted by the Commission the matter is here presented by subjects, the three cities being considered in turn under each subject.

TABLE 9.—*Employees in Fall River, New Bedford, and Lowell for whom Information was Secured: By General Nativity and Race.¹*

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE.	FALL RIVER		NEW BEDFORD		LOWELL	
	Number	Per-centages of Total	Number	Per-centages of Total	Number	Per-centages of Total
All Races.	12,654	100.0	9,044	100.0	12,148	100.0
<i>Native Born.</i>						
Native born of native father,	4,420	34.9	2,353	26.0	3,199	26.3
Native born of foreign father,	822	6.5	534	5.9	1,074	8.8
<i>Foreign Born.</i>						
Canadian, French,	8,234	65.1	6,691	74.0	8,949	73.7
Canadian, Other,	2,452	19.4	1,661	18.4	2,110	17.4
English,	29	0.2	54	0.6	256	2.1
Greek,	1,584	12.5	1,593	17.6	616	5.1
Irish,	16	0.1	49	0.5	1,878	15.5
Italian (North),	690	5.5	231	2.6	1,410	11.6
Italian (South),	93	0.7	17	0.2	17	0.1
Polish,	87	0.7	3	—	11	0.1
Portuguese,	596	4.7	391	4.3	1,032	8.5
Russian,	2,401	19.0	2,216	24.5	873	7.2
Scotch,	28	0.2	29	0.3	76	0.6
Syrian,	71	0.6	59	0.7	150	1.2
All others,	98	0.8	52	0.6	33	0.3
	89	0.7	333	3.7	487	4.0

¹ This table has been compiled by the Bureau, the data having been selected from each of three tables appearing in the report.

² Less than 0.05 per cent.

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Of the employees in Fall River from whom information was secured 65.1 per cent are foreign-born and 34.9 per cent are native-born; in New Bedford the percentages were 74.0 foreign-born and 26.0 native-born, and, in Lowell, 73.7 foreign-born and 26.3 native-born. The leading races represented by the foreign-born employees in cotton mills in Fall River were: Canadian, French, 19.4 per cent; Portuguese, 19.0 per cent; English, 12.5 per cent; Irish, 5.5 per cent; and Polish, 4.7 per cent; in New Bedford the leading races represented by the foreign-born were: Portuguese, 24.5 per cent; Canadian, French, 18.4 per cent; English, 17.6 per cent; Polish, 4.3 per cent; and Irish, 2.6 per cent; while in Lowell the leading races of the foreign-born were: Canadian, French, 17.4 per cent; Greek, 15.5 per cent; Irish, 11.6 per cent; Polish, 8.5 per cent; Portuguese, 7.2 per cent; and English, 5.1 per cent. Of these three cities Lowell was the only one which furnished Greeks in any considerable number. In addition to the races specified in the above table there were several which deserve mention because they are represented by a fairly large group in at least one of the three cities. Thus, in New Bedford, French and Germans were found in appreciable numbers, and in Lowell, Lithuanians, Turks, and Flemish were likewise found.

(b) Sex.

In Fall River the number of foreign-born males considered was but slightly in excess of the number of females; in New Bedford the foreign-born males constituted 58.5 per cent of the total number of foreign-born; and in Lowell 60.7 per cent. In each of the cities the number of males among the foreign-born English, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, and Syrian employees was in excess of the number of females of these respective peoples, while in the case of the Irish foreign-born the situation was reversed, the number of females exceeding the number of males in each case. Of the 46 Turks considered in New Bedford, all but two were males and of the 1,878 Greeks considered in Lowell, 1,479 were males. In Lowell 60 of the 88 Flemish considered were males.

(c) Racial Displacements.

(1) *Early Immigration.* — The first cotton-mill operatives in New England and the North Atlantic States were drawn almost exclusively from the native country population available to the manufacturing centers. Most of them were young women who took this means of assisting their families, or, as was the case with a large number, laying by a sum for their own dowries. . . .

. . . It is related that in the early history of Lowell young girls came into the town in stage loads to seek work in the mills. Farmers' sons, mechanics,

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machinists, and widows from the smaller villages also were attracted to Lowell and other cotton-mill communities. This movement continued until about 1840, when the expansion of the cotton manufacturing industry, and the resultant demand for labor, outgrew the local labor resources, and it was necessary for the mill owners to seek labor not only in other States of this country but in Canada, and also to draw upon the races which were at that time immigrating to the United States.

. . . Fares were high and people who came to the new textile towns were usually home seekers. This foreign labor mingled with the native element and imbibed many of its admirable qualities. It was recruited chiefly from Canada and England, Ireland, and Scotland. Immigration from the above sources was characteristic of the period 1840-1880. The history of Irish immigration to the cotton-mill towns dates from a very early period, the pioneers of this race being employed as unskilled laborers before they entered the cotton industry. This was notably true in Lowell, where, prior to the year 1827, the Irish were used as laborers in constructing the mills, locks, and canals. In this locality, as well as in others, however, the heavy tide of Irish immigration did not set in until after the year 1840. Irish immigrants continued to seek work in the mills in considerable numbers up to 1895, especially during the decade 1870-1880, but after 1880-1885 the importance of this source of supply was overshadowed by others.

Small numbers of English immigrants, as in the case of the Irish, had come to New England before the development of cotton manufacturing on a large scale. They were employed in small numbers in the cotton mills before 1840, and the extent of their employment steadily continued after the above-mentioned year. The immigration of the English in large numbers, however, was characteristic of the decade 1870-1880, and that race furnished a large proportion of persons of foreign birth seeking employment in the mills up to the year 1895. During the past 15 years the immigration of the English has rapidly declined, and no recent additions of any consequence have been made to the mill operatives by members of this race. The Scotch were also early settlers in the mill towns, but they have never been employed in the mills in large numbers and form an unimportant element in the population of the mill towns as compared with the English and Irish. The Germans employed in the cotton mills, who have always ranked low in a numerical comparison with the English and Irish, are all practically immigrants of the past 25 years. The English and French Canadian immigration began about 1850, but did not assume large proportions until after the civil war. During the decade 1860-1870 they entered the industry in large numbers and continued to attain a constantly stronger position up to the close of the past century. During the past 10 years the immigration of the English and French races from Canada has practically ceased, however, and some communities have lost a part of the population element belonging to these races which they had had before 1900. Scattering representatives of the Scandinavian

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race were working in the mills prior to 1880 and have steadily increased in numbers since that year, especially in the case of the operatives from Sweden.

Prior to the year 1880, therefore, the operating force of the cotton mills was composed of native whites born of native father, together with English, Irish, English and French Canadians, and small numbers of Scotch and Scandinavian immigrants. Very few representatives of races of Southern and Eastern Europe were employed in the mills. . . .

(2) *Recent Immigration.* — The races of Southern and Eastern Europe in the textile centers in 1880 were evidently so small as to be a negligible quantity. . . .

During the decade 1890-1900 the movement of races from the south and east of Europe set in rapidly, and the influx of immigrants from Great Britain and Northern Europe, with the exception of Germany, practically ceased. Immigration from Canada increased, but in a decreasing proportion as compared with former years. Of the new immigration, the Greeks, Portuguese, Russians, Poles, and Italians entered in the largest numbers. . . .

The races coming in largest numbers since 1900 have been the Greeks, Portuguese, and Bravas from the Western Islands, Italians mostly from Southern Italy, Poles, Hebrews, Syrians, Armenians, Bulgarians, and Turks. French Canadians have also continued to enter the mills, but in diminishing numbers. The arrival of members of races from Northern Europe and Great Britain has practically ceased. The additions to the operating forces of the mills at present consist of members of races from Southern and Eastern Europe, which are fast displacing the operatives of older immigration. . . .

(3) *Immigration to Representative Communities. Fall River.* — Immigration to Fall River has been directly connected with the growth of the cotton manufacturing industry. The first mill in the city was built in 1813, and the industry had a slow but gradual growth until the close of the civil war. Since 1874 the expansion has been very rapid and has continued more or less steadily to the present time. . . .

Although in the early days of the industry practically all the mill hands in Fall River were of native stock, operatives of American parentage are now very few. In the year 1900 they constituted less than four per cent of the persons employed in the cotton goods industry. The English and Irish were the first immigrants to enter the cotton mills, the Lancashire operatives being taken on when the demand for labor exceeded the supply of skilled American employees. French Canadian immigrants followed in the rougher, less skilled, and lower-paid work, and later, Portuguese, Poles, Italians, Syrians, and Scandinavians. There were Irish in Fall River before the establishment of the cotton industry in the city, but their immigration began in large volume in the fifties and by 1875 about 9,000 of this race were in residence. With the rapid expansion of the industry many more were encouraged to come, and in 1885 there were 20,000 of Irish birth or of Irish father. There has been no material increase since the date last mentioned. Like the Irish, a few English had been coming to Fall River

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for many years prior to the development of the mills, but the heavy immigration of that race did not begin until the period 1870-1875. In 1875 the number of persons of English birth or of English father was about 8,700; in 1885, 13,000; and in 1895, 22,000. Since that year the English immigration has not been large and their numbers have undergone an actual decrease within the past few years.

The opinion is expressed by intelligent observers that the English immigration has fallen off because conditions are no better in Fall River than in the English mills, the industry, so far as the laborers are concerned, having reached the same level as in Great Britain. The decrease in the English and Irish population of the city is also largely due to the fact that the majority of the 13,000 persons who left Fall River during the textile strike of 1904 were of these races. Since then they seem to have been steadily decreasing in numbers and the exodus [appears] still to be going on to some extent.

A few French Canadians were among the immigrants who came before the Civil War, but their arrival in large numbers dates from the early years of the decade 1870-1880. In 1875 they numbered about 5,000; in 1885, 8,200; in 1895, 17,000; and at present there are probably 36,000 of these people in Fall River. How many are coming at present it is difficult to determine. Many return to Canada each Summer, some of whom remain there, but there are new arrivals and the race seems to be holding its own.

A few Portuguese and Azores Islanders have been in Fall River for many years, having first come to Massachusetts in connection with the whaling and fishing industry of New Bedford. Within more recent years, however, the women and children and some of the men have entered the mills. In 1875 there were about 175 of them; in 1885, 300; in 1895, 1,700; and at present probably 10,000. Their immigration still continues and to-day is probably the largest that comes into the city. . . . Practically all the Poles, Italians, Syrians, and Armenians have come to Fall River during the past 10 years, and nearly all since the strike of textile operatives during 1904. They were not brought in as strike breakers, but the exodus of 13,000 operatives created an opening in the less skilled classes of work and they were encouraged to come when the mills resumed operations. These races are still arriving in large numbers, especially the Poles, who bid fair soon to be an important factor numerically in the population. The present numbers of these races are estimated as follows: Poles, 4,000; Italians (principally South), 2,500; Syrians, 1,000. . . .

New Bedford. — The first cotton mill was built in New Bedford during the decade 1850-1860, and, although there was a steady growth in the industry, the first real expansion came in the early part of the decade 1880 to 1890, when local capital turned from whaling ventures to investment in cotton mills. During the four years, 1897 to 1900, there was another rapid extension of the cotton industry, and at the present time mills are being built very rapidly.

Extensive immigration to New Bedford resulted chiefly from the erection of the cotton mills and began, of course, within comparatively recent years. The

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one exception is the case of the Portuguese, whose immigration many years ago was due to the whaling and fishing industries of the city. When whaling was at its height, a fleet of three or four hundred whalers sailed from the port. They spent the Summer cruising in the Atlantic and then put in at the Azores, where they increased their crews from 24 or 25 to 35 men by taking on experienced seamen native to those islands. The whaling vessels then continued on their cruises in many oceans in search of the sperm whale. Within two or three years they usually returned to New Bedford with their entire crew. Thus it came about that a few Portuguese remained in New Bedford, and the number of residents of that race was gradually increased. When whaling declined and New Bedford investors withdrew their capital from whale ships and placed it in cotton mills, Portuguese population, as might be expected, supplied a part of the cotton-mill operatives. Considerable numbers have also been recruited from the Azores as the demand for labor increased. At present the mills probably have more to do with the immigration of the Portuguese than has anything else.

A few Irish have been coming to New Bedford since shortly after 1850, but their numbers were not large until the expansion of the cotton industry occurred. In 1865, there were about 3,000 persons of Irish birth or of Irish father in the city; in 1885, 5,900; in 1895, 7,800. At the present time immigrants are not coming from Ireland in any considerable numbers. English immigration, too, has ceased to be of importance numerically. It also dates from the expansion of the cotton industry, the population of English birth or of English father being about 1,500 in 1875, 4,000 in 1885, and 10,500 in 1895. At present it is estimated at about 15,000. The English have come chiefly from the mill towns of England — Lancaster, Preston, Blackburn, and Oldham. They are, as a rule, ambitious to hold the higher positions in the mills, and large numbers of the young men are studying in the local textile school. The Scotch have been about 40 years in New Bedford and now number about 3,000; of the Scotch-Irish and Scotch-Canadians, there are perhaps 1,000 more. The Scotch people came largely from Glasgow and occupy the higher positions in the mills, a number being loom fixers.

The French-Canadians have been coming to New Bedford for about 50 years, and their immigration is still large. Some of those who are now arriving are from other parts of the United States. Those from Canada come chiefly from Montreal. In 1875 there were, approximately, 600 French-Canadians in the city; in 1885, 2,175; and in 1895, 5,636. A church census of June, 1909, reports 21,000, though some estimates exceed this figure by 4,000.

Portuguese immigration to New Bedford is of very early origin. As already stated, it began with the Portuguese, Azores, and Canary Island sailors employed on the whaling and fishing ships. A few of these men settled here, and gradually more came. After a time the women and children began working in the mills during the men's absence, and this has greatly stimulated the immigration, especially within the past few years. In 1875 there were almost 800 persons of Portuguese birth or of Portuguese father in New Bedford; in 1885, 2,000; in 1895,

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6,000; and at present probably from 10,000 to 12,000. They are still arriving in large numbers, the majority being from the Azores and very few from the Continent. From 2,000 to 3,000 Bravas, immigrants from Cape Verde Islands, are among the Portuguese of New Bedford, of whom about 1,000 come and go each year. They have been 25 years in the locality.

Most of the Germans in New Bedford have come during the past 20 years, though some have been here twice that length of time. One estimate gives the present German-speaking population as 1,000, another reports the total as probably, 2,000.

The Polish race has been a factor in the population for only a short time, the past 10 or 15 years covering the history of the immigration. Perhaps one-fourth of the Poles are from Russia, the majority being from Galicia in Austria. Strikes in the New Bedford cotton mills in 1894 and 1898, which caused many operatives to leave, encouraged the coming of the Poles, although they were not brought in as strike breakers. The present population is estimated at from 2,700 to 3,000, and the Poles are still arriving in considerable numbers. Italian, Syrian, Armenian, and Greek immigrants have been arriving within the past 10 to 15 years. The Italians are not employed in the mills to any large extent. They are chiefly from Southern Italy, and are engaged in construction work and outside labor. There are also about 500 Hebrew families in New Bedford, but only a few girls and unmarried men are in the mills. . . .

Lowell. — The pioneer operatives in the Lowell mills, as has already been pointed out, were of native birth and were chiefly girls from the surrounding farms and villages. Irish and English immigration to the community, however, began in 1827, 14 years after its establishment. The heavy tide of Irish immigration started about 1840, and by the year 1880 the total number of persons of Irish birth in the city was 10,670. This number had increased to 12,671 by 1890, and by 1905 the number of persons of Irish birth, or of Irish father, was 27,136. Among the English who came to the city in 1827 were Lancaster calico printers, and in 1837 a considerable number of English woolen-mill operatives entered the locality. With these early immigrants as a nucleus, the English portion of the population gradually increased until the year 1895, since which time it has slightly decreased. In 1905 there were in the city 4,335 English-born persons and 7,320 born of English fathers. The Scotch were among the early arrivals, but never attained to the same importance in numbers as the English and Irish. The immigration of the Scotch dates from 1829, and the State census of 1905 gave 1,058 born in Scotland and 2,284 native-born of Scotch father. A few French Canadians entered the community during the decade 1850–1860, and continued to arrive in increasing numbers during the Civil War period. After the year 1865 there was a rapid growth in the French Canadian population, extending until the close of the century. During the period 1900–1907, however, there was a falling off in the number of French Canadians, due to the textile strike of 1903 and the industrial depression of 1907. At the present time the French Canadian population of

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Lowell, according to careful estimates is 21,500, including persons native-born of French Canadian fathers.

Swedish and German immigration to Lowell has never assumed any large proportions, the cotton mill occupations not appealing to members of either of these races. Portuguese first entered Lowell from New Bedford about the year 1870, and constituted a very small proportion of the operating forces of the mills until the period 1895-1900. In 1902 the Portuguese population of the city was about 950, and at the present time it is estimated at 2,200, including 440 families and between 600 and 700 children under 12 years of age. The Greeks first sought work in the Lowell cotton mills in 1895, and since that year there has been a remarkable increase in the Greek colony, which at the present time is estimated to embrace 8,000 persons, of whom about 1,000 are women, 500 are children, and 6,500 are men. The Polish immigration, as in the case of the Greek, began after 1895, but has not increased so rapidly. The census of 1900 showed over 400 Poles, and at the present time (1909) there are estimated to be in Lowell 2,200 Poles. The Lithuanians in the city have practically all arrived during the past three [or] four years. At present there are about 800 Lithuanians in Lowell, including about 500 men, 175 women, and 125 children. Other races which have arrived during the past five years are represented in the city's population by 300 Armenians, 800 Hebrews, 300 Turks, and between 200 and 300 Syrians. . . .

(4) *Length of Residence.* — [Of 8,024 foreign-born employees considered in the cotton mills in Fall River,] 21.7 per cent have been in the United States under five years; 19.7 per cent have been here from five to nine years; 12.7 per cent have been here from 10 to 14 years; 14.4 per cent have been here from 15 to 19 years; 31.4 per cent have been here 20 years or over. In other words, more than one-fifth of all the individuals have been in the United States less than five years, and more than one-half less than 15 years. . . .

The percentages show that a very large proportion of the natives of Southern and Eastern Europe have been here less than 15 years, while the majority of the English, Irish, and French Canadians have been here over 15 years. Of the Irish, 70.0 per cent have been in the United States 20 years or over. . . .

[Of the 6,610 foreign-born employees considered in New Bedford, 32.1 per cent have been in the United States less than five years, 24.1 per cent have been here from five to nine years; 12.4 per cent from 10 to 14 years; 14.1 per cent from 15 to 19 years, and 17.3 per cent, 20 years or over.]

Of the employees [in Lowell] for whom information was secured, 37 per cent have been in the United States under five years; 17.3 per cent have been here from five to nine years; 9.3 per cent have been here from 10 to 14 years; 10.3 per cent have been here from 15 to 19 years; 26.1 per cent have been here 20 years or over. Of the foreign-born, 54.3 per cent have been in the United States less than 10 years. . . .

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(d) The Immigrant and Organized Labor.¹

Fall River, Massachusetts, is the only distinctly trade-union locality in the industry in New England. Fall River rates of pay dominate the industry, and strikes and wages contests in that city have been numerous. In New Bedford, Lowell, and Manchester [New Hampshire], there are no union agreements, and where any labor organizations exist they are very weak. As a rule, each community has a number of operatives affiliated with trade unions, but such membership is usually general and not local. . . .

Among the cotton-mill operatives in Fall River there are five unions, including the weavers, carders, mule spinners, slasher tenders, and loom fixers. The ring spinners, pickers, spoolers, and drawers-in have no unions of their own, but a few of the workers in these occupations belong to some of the above-mentioned unions. The teamsters and other manual laborers are unorganized. Of the total number of operatives in the city, not more than 9,000 are now active members of the unions, though at one time or another probably 22,000 to 24,000 of them have been members. Although not more than one-third, therefore, of the operatives are at present members of the unions, all the operatives are strongly union in their sympathies and in case of labor troubles have stood with the union people. As a consequence, the manufacturers have had to deal with a fairly solid union sentiment. . . .

The unions have educated recent immigrants as they entered the industry as to what conditions they should expect and what rates of pay they should demand. When the Poles, Portuguese, and other recent immigrants enter the cotton industry in Fall River they are forced to take up unskilled work, or, in other words, they begin at the bottom in some such department as the picking room. Weaving and spinning are, comparatively speaking, skilled occupations and require a considerable time to learn. Foreigners, therefore, do not at once enter these trades. Many of them never advance beyond the unskilled work. These occupations are not organized, and the coming of the foreigner there does not concern the textile unions. Since the textile occupations themselves, which are unionized, are thus protected, by the long time required to attain proficiency, from any sudden or immediate competition of unorganized foreigners, these unions are not strongly opposed to the immigrants gradually working into their trades. The process is bound to be gradual, and it gives the unions time to get control of the foreigner. Automatic or improved machinery might change this situation, and the coming of the immigrant might then be a more serious matter for the unions and might subject them to disastrous competition from unorganized workers accustomed to a lower standard of wages, but that is not the condition at present. When the immigrants do advance to such work as weaving and spinning

¹ The reader should bear in mind that this matter relative to "The Immigrant and Organized Labor" was prepared in 1909. At the close of 1912 there were seven unions of textile workers in Fall River with a membership of approximately 4,500. — *Ed.*

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the textile unions admit them to membership. The labor organizations often have to undergo more or less trouble and expense in inducing the immigrants to enter the unions. In cases where there are operatives of the second generation they more readily take the union view of the case and gradually come in. They are then used to secure the foreign-born members of their respective races. In any case the union after the admission of the alien operatives, is said usually not to be so uniform, compact, and harmonious a body as before. As regards the attitude of the immigrants toward the unions, when they advance to the skilled, organized occupations, even if they do not join the unions, they do not oppose the organization or cut under the union wages. As a rule they do not understand trade-union principles very well and often confuse the unions with socialistic ideas of their own, and consequently the unions not only have to spend time and money in organizing the foreigners but have to educate them in trade-union ideas.

At the time of strikes the recent immigrants come into the unions in large numbers, but often let their membership lapse when the controversy is over. They do not yet constitute a steady and reliable trade-union class as do the English, Irish, and Americans. This does not apply to the French Canadians who have been in Fall River long enough to have become well Americanized and are strong trade-unionists.

The ill effects upon the unions resulting from the presence in the industry of later immigrants, according to the statement of the union officials, is not their hostility to the unions but the retarding influence which they exert upon progress. Many, they state, have been accustomed to lower wages and poorer conditions abroad than they find in this country, and therefore consider themselves well situated here, although from the American viewpoint wages may be low, working conditions unsatisfactory, and the unions trying to improve them. This being the case the immigrants do not look forward so eagerly to bettering conditions. They are more easily satisfied, and, while they may resist a decrease in wages as energetically as any one else, they are not aggressively seeking their general betterment. Hence they act as a retarding influence and tend to make slower the accomplishment of better conditions. The union leaders realize that they must educate them to the demands of the organization, and claim that they really have to rely on the second generation for results. This is the chief objection of the unions to the recent immigrant as the matter now stands. It imposes additional burdens on the unions and retards their work.

At present in Fall River there are foreigners of all the different races represented in the local textile unions. The development of union sentiment among them is largely a matter of growth resulting from their association with unionized fellow-workmen. In times of strikes these foreigners have stood by the unions, even though previously they may not have been members. . . .

*Immigrants in Cotton Goods Manufacturing.**(e) Reasons for Employing Immigrants.*

The chief reason for the employment of immigrants has been the impossibility of securing other labor to supply the demand caused by the expansion of the industry. Without the immigrant labor supply, the development of the cotton-goods industry to its present status in New England and other North Atlantic States could not have taken place. With the exception of the skilled operatives from Great Britain, representatives of other races were at first employed in the unskilled occupations of the industry, and a large number of the earlier arrivals from Canada and Ireland were employed in the construction of the mills. In Fall River, the English and Irish were originally secured because the mills were being rapidly put into operation and skilled operatives could not be obtained among the native Americans. On the other hand, the employment of the French Canadians was due to a scarcity of labor for the rougher, less skilled work. The Portuguese, Poles, Syrians, Italians, and other races of more recent immigration supplied the demand for labor in the lower paid occupations resulting from the rise of the French Canadians and Irish in the industrial scale, and by a further extension of the industry. Special opportunities for the Southern and Eastern European to secure work occurred when a large number of operatives left Fall River during or after the strike of 1904. Practically the same developments, with one or two exceptions, have occurred in New Bedford, Manchester, and Lowell as in Fall River. The comparatively large number of Brazilians and Portuguese who secured work in the New Bedford mills, was obviously due to the presence of these races in the city on account of its importance as a shipping point and whaling-expedition center prior to the erection of the cotton mills. A local situation similar in character but of different import is afforded by the employment of Greeks in such comparatively large numbers in the Lowell mills, the influx of this race into that city being started by a fellow-countryman and the movement stimulated by subsequent labor dissensions between the mills and other races employed. . . .

(f) General Progress and Assimilation.

Whether or not the demand for operatives could and would have been met by native-born labor in the absence of any other is a question, but that there has been a continuous change in the working force of the cotton goods manufacturing industry, that one race has succeeded another for many decades, and that the present racial composition of the operative class has almost nothing in common with that of 80 years ago are indisputable facts.

As to whether or not the expression "crowding out" fairly describes the process of displacement there is a difference of opinion. Those who consider the gradual nature of the change which has taken place and the relatively peaceful history of the industry are inclined to soften the term. What ordinarily occurs

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is that a few pioneering members of a race secure employment in the rougher and less attractive grades of work and form the nucleus of a gradually increasing body of workmen of that race. The transition from one race to another, or the process by which one race is said to drive another out and up, is almost imperceptible. At any time representatives of many nationalities may be found in one occupation. The numerical proportion which they bear to one another, however, is seen in a considerable period of time to have changed.

All things considered, the expression commonly used is not too strong to describe what has actually taken place, but it must in fairness be added that the crowding out of natives and early immigrants has been supplemented by a process of withdrawal due to the additional opportunities afforded by the industrial expansion of later years. Almost invariably the race displaced rises in the social and industrial scale, not infrequently becoming the teachers and employers of the children of the succeeding operative class. An important consideration bearing on the displacement of labor is the discontent of American working people with the conditions in the cotton factories. The American girls who were once found in such numbers in the mills are now in almost negligible minority; the daughters and granddaughters of native Americans may practically be left out of consideration in speaking of mill operatives. The Irish and French Canadian girls have begun to be affected with a discontent with mill work, though the latter still constitute probably the largest class of female operatives.

Turning to the reasons which give rise to the foregoing facts, in the first place it is found that wages in the cotton mills are too low to be attractive to ambitious young people when native-born or Americanized; in the second place, education and the desire for work less mechanical and confining than the superintending of noisy and monotonous processes lead these young men and women to seek their fortunes elsewhere; and, in the third place, the fact that the mill occupations have passed so largely into the hands of immigrants has rendered such work in the eyes of the former operatives less worthy and respectable.

The effect of the employment of recent immigrants upon the use of machinery is small beyond stimulating the invention of automatic devices. At the present time new mechanical devices for utilizing unskilled labor are being adopted. Each improvement in the direction of automatic machines or machines that leave less to the skill of the operatives hastens the advance of the lower skilled immigrants to positions now held by more skilled and better-paid workers and tends to increase the number of the recent immigrants in the industry. Some superintendents claim that the employment of large numbers of recent immigrants will stimulate the invention and use of such machinery — first, because they can be secured at lower wages, and hence there is a double lowering of labor cost where the machine has a greater output, as most have; second, because it is an open question whether these foreigners can ever become as skillful as the best English and Irish, and if not, better machines must be invented to meet the situation.

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(g) *Industrial Progress and Efficiency.*

The American, English, Irish, and French Canadians have in all localities advanced to the better paid and more skilled occupations. The Portuguese are also making progress slowly in the same direction, the greatest advancement of this race being in New Bedford, where they have been longest employed. The Poles, Syrians, Italians, Greeks, and other recent immigrants have not made much progress, but they have been in the industry only a short time and have not yet had sufficient opportunity to show how rapidly they will acquire skill enough to advance into better work. None of the recent immigrants have become foremen, for several reasons: (1) They have not been in the industry long enough to acquire the requisite skill and experience; (2) they could not be of sufficient value to the mills in securing operatives, for the reason that when there is a lack of employees the supervisors and second hands assist in procuring the help needed. For the most part they depend on their own races. Supervisors of the races of recent immigration would now be a failure in this branch of the work, because those of these races who are in skilled occupations in the industry are not numerous enough to furnish many to draw from; (3) the appointment of supervisors of these races would drive most of the English and Irish workers and many of those who are of French Canadian descent out of the mills, and hence it would not be good policy as yet to appoint them even if they had the necessary skill. A representation of the general situation is afforded by one of the largest mills in New England, which employs a wide variety of races and has 75 overseers. Of this number, three are Germans, three Scotch, two French Canadians, four Irish, one English, two Canadians, and the remainder Americans. Practically all mill superintendents unite in the statement that recent immigrants will eventually work up to such positions, Portuguese first, probably, and others later.

Because of the fact that races employed in one mill or locality are not employed in another, it is difficult to secure any consensus of opinion from employers as to the relative progress of operatives according to nativity and race. A general estimate of the opinions and preferences of the mill superintendents and of employers of the different classes of employees may be obtained by summarizing the opinions given in some of the representative localities. In Fall River and New Bedford, . . . the consensus of opinion of mill superintendents, regarding the various races employed by them, gives the following ranking according to the standards specified.

1. *General Efficiency.* — American, English and Irish, French Canadian, North Italian, Portuguese, Polish, South Italian, Syrian.
2. *Progress.* — Same as for efficiency, above.
3. *Adaptability.* — American, English, Irish, French Canadian, North Italian, South Italian, Portuguese, Syrian and Polish.

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4. *Tractability.* — Portuguese, French Canadian, North Italian, American, Irish, English, Polish, Syrian and South Italian.

5. *Industriousness.* — Portuguese, French Canadian, North Italian, American, English, Irish, Polish, South Italian, Syrian.

The low ranking of American, English, and Irish racial groups as to tractability in the above summary is due to the employers' objection to these races on the ground that they organize and take an active interest in labor unions. . . .

(h) *School Attendance.*

In [Fall River] information as to nativity and race of father was secured for 13,926 pupils in public and 5,722 pupils in parochial schools. Of the pupils in public schools, 67.2 per cent were of foreign parentage, 32.4 per cent were children of native whites, and only three-tenths of one per cent were children of native negroes; while of the pupils in parochial schools 81.7 per cent were of foreign parentage and the remainder were the children of native whites. Among the foreign-born the English, Portuguese, French Canadians, Irish, and Russian Hebrews, in the order mentioned, have the largest representation in the public schools. In the parochial schools 58.1 per cent of the pupils were of French Canadian parentage, 10.1 per cent of Irish, and 6.7 per cent of English parentage. . . .

(i) *Naturalization.*

[Of 863 foreign-born male employees in Fall River cotton mills who had been in the United States five years or over and who were 21 years of age or over at time of coming, 245, or] 28.4 per cent, are fully naturalized [and 74, or] 8.6 per cent have first papers only. Thus it is seen that only 37 per cent have taken interest in becoming citizens, the remaining 63 per cent having taken no steps whatsoever toward naturalization. Comparing the different races represented in the locality marked differences are noticeable. The Irish and English show the greatest interest in becoming naturalized, nearly 75 per cent of each race either being fully naturalized or having first papers. The Irish have 64.2 per cent fully naturalized and an additional 10.4 per cent with first papers, and the English have 58.1 per cent fully naturalized and 15.8 per cent with first papers only. The Poles and Portuguese show almost no interest in the matter of citizenship, each race having less than four per cent of their number who have taken any steps toward becoming naturalized.

These comparisons show a much more active interest on the part of the old immigrants than the new immigrants. The French Canadians, however, although old immigrants, do not approach the activity and interest shown by the English and Irish, only 11.5 per cent of this race being fully naturalized and 6.4 per cent with first papers. This may, perhaps, be explained by the fact that the French Canadians are so near home and return there so often that they are not so likely

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to look upon the United States as a permanent home as are the Irish and the English. . . .

Among those who have resided in the United States for 10 or more years the proportion of fully naturalized males is greatly in excess of the proportion of naturalized males in the previous period of residence group. Of the English with a residence of 10 years or over in this country 69.2 per cent are fully naturalized, as compared with 13.6 per cent of the French Canadians and 4.1 per cent of the Portuguese; while of those who have secured first papers only, the English, 10.3 per cent, show the largest proportion, followed by the French Canadians and Portuguese, who report 6.1 and 2.7 per cent, respectively. . . .

[Of 790 foreign-born males in New Bedford cotton mills who had been in the United States five years or over and who were 21 years of age or over at time of coming,] 226, or 28.6 per cent, are fully naturalized, and 127, or 16.1 per cent, have first papers only, leaving 55.3 per cent who have taken no steps toward naturalization. There are only three races with 40 or more males reporting information. Of the three the English show by far the greatest activity in becoming citizens. Over 75 per cent of the 348 English reporting have taken some steps toward naturalization, 46.6 per cent being fully naturalized and 29.9 per cent having first papers only. Only 10 of the 205 Portuguese, or a bare five per cent, have either first or second papers. As a race they may be said to have taken no interest in becoming citizens. The French Canadians report 18.6 per cent fully naturalized and two per cent with first papers.

In [Lowell] 21.4 per cent of the foreign-born male employees for whom information was secured are fully naturalized and 6.7 per cent have first papers only. Of the races for which the percentages have been computed the Irish, followed by the English, have the largest and the Poles the smallest proportion of fully naturalized persons, and the English and Irish in the order named have the largest proportions of individuals having first papers only. . . .

C. WOOLEN AND WORSTED GOODS MANUFACTURING.¹(a) *Introductory.*

With reference to the growth of this industry the Commission states that "During the past 40 years the manufacture of worsted and woolen goods in the United States has undergone a rapid development. . . .

From the standpoint of recent and past immigration, the most significant fact in connection with the growth of the industry has been the expansion of the operating forces which led to the necessity of recruiting employees from the members of immigrant races. The average number of woolen and worsted goods operatives in the United States in 1880 was 132,672, and in 1905, 179,976." . . .

In the course of its investigation of this industry the Commission

¹ From Vol. 10 of the Report of the United States Immigration Commission.

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collected considerable descriptive and historical material, obtained original data from 440 households and detailed information for 40,533 individual operatives. The investigation was confined to nine States, having 166,385 employees in the industry in 1905. The original data for individual operatives represented, therefore, 24.4 per cent of the total number employed in 1905. The bulk of this report consists of a "General Survey of the Woolen and Worsted Goods Industry in the North Atlantic States" but the report also contains a "Study of a Representative Worsted Goods Manufacturing Community", and it is from this latter study that the matter here presented has been, for the most part, selected. In the general survey, however, two localities in Massachusetts were specially considered in the following paragraphs:

There were in the city of Lawrence, in 1900, 7,180 woolen and worsted mill operatives. Of these, 374 were native-born whites of native parents, 2,005 were native-born whites of foreign parents, and 4,801 were foreign-born whites. In other words, between 65 and 70 per cent of all the workers were foreign-born. It will be noted that among the employees having one or both parents born abroad those of Irish, British, German, and French Canadian parentage, in the order mentioned, had the largest representation. The proportion of workers of Northern and Western European, British, and Canadian parentage was thus much larger than the proportion of workers of Southern and Eastern European parentage. . . .

As early as 1853 foreign-born persons settled in Lawrence. . . . The first to locate were the Germans who were followed by the English, a large number of whom located here prior to the arrival of the Scotch and French Canadians, who came in 1865. From that time, and for a long period thereafter, the representatives of these races steadily increased in numbers. It was not, however, until about 20 years ago that the races usually considered as the more recent immigrants began to arrive in this locality. The first were the Hebrews and Poles, who, like the representatives of those races previously referred to, have gained steadily since first they came. While several Lithuanians settled in this locality from 1885 to 1888, it was from 1894 to 1898 that they arrived in considerable numbers. The greatest increase in the number of Lithuanians, however, has occurred within the last three years. Very few Italians settled in the locality prior to 1895, but from 1895 until the present, although many returned to their native country during the recent industrial depression, their number has rapidly increased. It was during this same year that the Syrians, Armenians, and French Belgians began to locate in this community. Most of the French Belgians, however, have come in since 1905. A few Portuguese located here shortly after the close of the Civil War, but not until within the last 10 years has any considerable increase in their number been noted. . . .

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The history of immigration to the town of Maynard, Middlesex County, . . . may also be considered as indicating the general racial movements to the industry. This locality has a population of about 6,000 individuals, of which about 84 per cent are immigrants. Of the total population, about 43 per cent are employed in the several departments of the woolen mill, which is the only industrial establishment located in the town. The interests of the mill are the interests of the town, and without the mill there would be no inducement for immigrants to settle in the locality.

Prior to 1846 the inhabitants of the locality wherein is now located the town of Maynard were Americans and numbered not more than a few hundred; but in the year 1846 a small mill was established under private management which attracted a large number of English, Irish, and Scotch immigrants, who, with a few natives and French Canadians, both men and women, entered its employment and furnished the labor with which it was operated up to about 1890. In 1871 the settlement was incorporated as a town with a population of about 3,300, with the Irish, native Americans, and English predominating. The population was slowly enlarged from year to year by small groups and families of English, Irish, Scotch, and French Canadians, until the early nineties, when the mill passed under the control of new interests and was greatly enlarged. Soon after the change was made in the mill management a large number of Finns, Swedes, and Danes entered the locality to secure employment, and by 1898 over 1,000 Finns, 150 Swedes, and 100 Danes were included in the town population. The number of Scandinavians, however, has decreased greatly in the last 10 years, while the number of Finns has been nearly doubled. In 1904 several hundred Poles, a few Lithuanians, about a hundred Russian Hebrews, and several families of Greeks settled in the town and found employment in the mill. A number of South Italians entered the community in 1905 as railroad laborers, and after the construction work was finished about 150 remained and entered the mill. There are also found a few families of Germans in Maynard who have been in the town for many years, and who, it is claimed, entered with the early English and Irish settlers. . . .

(b) *Study of a Representative Community.*

Although the general survey contained but little data making specific reference to Massachusetts, the study of the representative community appears to be of distinct value in that it presents data with which may be compared similar data for those industrial cities in Massachusetts that are known to be distinctively woolen and worsted manufacturing centers. With reference to the purpose of this study the Commission states:

As in the case of other industries, a study was made of a representative community engaged in the manufacture of worsted and woolens, in which immigrants

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of recent and past years have been employed, in large numbers, for the purpose of studying the industrial effects of immigration in greater detail and to verify the tendencies exhibited by the more extended tabulations. . . .

Original data were secured in the course of the investigation for 17,787 industrial operatives, or 79.1 per cent of the total number in the community, and additional information was also secured by means of the family schedule used.

(aa) Racial Displacements.

(1) *History of Immigration.* — A local newspaper analyzed the population of the town in 1848 as follows: American, 3,750; Irish, 2,139; English, 28; Scotch, 9; French, 3; Welsh, 2; Italian, 1; German, 1; and colored, 16; total, 5,949. This [analysis] is significant in that it shows what is borne out by later censuses, that the large foreign-born population of the city is no new condition of things, but has existed continuously from the founding of the village. . . .

The following citations describe briefly the racial displacements that have taken place in the community since its establishment:

Irish. — Irish population of Community A is as old as the city itself, there being no fewer than 1,200 of that race residing there within two years of the first settlement which occurred in 1845. . . . At the present time the Irish population of the community, that is, the population of the Irish Roman Catholic parishes, is about 21,000, or by far the largest racial element in the population of the city.

English and Scotch. — About 1865 there occurred a heavy immigration of skilled textile workers from the counties of Yorkshire and Lancashire, England. A large number of English had entered the community previous to 1865, and in the decades which have followed additional emigration from the worsted districts of England has occurred as the worsted industry in this community has developed. During the past few years a number of English from the counties of Yorkshire and Lancashire have immigrated to the city as in the earlier days, but the numbers reached have not been very large. It is very difficult to estimate the English population at the present time, for, unlike the Irish, the English are confined within no parochial bounds. They probably number about 9,000 or 10,000. The Scotch population is similarly mingled with other elements. It probably numbers between 2,000 and 2,500.

French Canadian. — In 1865 the number of persons in the community born in "British America" was 563. In 1875 there were 1,924 born in the "Dominion of Canada." French Canadian immigration appears to have progressed more slowly than to the more distinctively cotton towns of New England. . . . At the present time the French Canadian population numbers about 12,000.

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During the industrial depression of 1907 possibly 2,000 returned to Canada or left the community for other places in the United States. Most of the people who went to Canada were waiting for better industrial conditions before returning to the United States, and in the meantime worked on farms. In times of industrial activity the seasonal immigration to Canada is not very large. It is noticeable in the community as elsewhere that after 15 or 20 years residence in this country the birth rate of French Canadians is much less than at the time of their arrival. The men realize the financial burden imposed by a large family and the women learn to prize a measure of ease and freedom.

German. — . . . As early as 1853, . . . five German families had settled in Community A and the total German population at that time was not far from 40. In 1908 local newspapers estimated the German population at 12,000 and the German-speaking population, including certain Hebrews, Poles, and Russians, at 15,000. It is also maintained that, next to Boston, Community A is the largest German center in New England. The Germans of the community came principally from the textile districts of Saxony, Bavaria, and Silesia, and a large number of the weavers in the worsted mills are of the German race.

Polish. — Polish immigrants have been numbered among the population of the community only during the past 15 or 20 years. The census of 1895 showed but 15 born in Poland. In 1903 there are said to have been 600 Poles in the city. . . . At the present time there are about 2,100 Poles in the city. Of these about two-thirds are from Galicia in Austro-Hungary, nearly one-third from Russia, and about two per cent from Posen, Germany.

Portuguese. — A small number of Portuguese immigrants were found among the foreign population of the city soon after the close of the Civil War. It is only within the past 10 years that their numbers have increased to any considerable extent. . . . At present the Portuguese population is about 685.

Hebrew. — Hebrew immigration to Community A has taken place mainly within the last 20 years. One of the oldest Hebrew residents in the city stated that in 1890 there were about 50 Hebrew families in the city, as compared with about 400 at the present time. Estimating six individuals to a family, this would give a Hebrew population at present of nearly 2,500. Many Hebrews enter the mills, but sooner or later pass out into some business venture of their own. Rather more than usual of their race are found employed as mill operatives, due perhaps to the fact that a part of the Hebrew population came from cities in Russia, such as Warsaw, which are seats of the textile industry.

Italian. — The Italian population of Community A was very small previous to 1895. Since that time the increase has been rapid, due in part to artificial stimulation by the management of one or two of the larger worsted mills. . . . All but a few families are South Italians. From 1,100 to 1,500 went back to Italy during the depression of 1907. At the present time from 50 to 75 Italians are coming into the city each month.

Syrian. — The census of 1895 was the first which showed any appreciable

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number of immigrants from the Turkish Empire. The majority of the 213 reported that year were no doubt Syrians. The greater part of the colony has come within the past 10 years. The total Syrian population at the present time is between 2,500 and 3,000. There are a large number of families, and about a fourth of the population consists of children under 16 years of age. . . . The greater part of the Syrian population is employed in the textile mills, . . . The Syrian population has permanent employment, and only a score or so of the race left the city during the panic year of 1907. There is a tendency on the part of the Syrians to remain permanently in this country; . . . About 60 per cent of the Syrians are able to speak English, some of them having received training in American schools in their own land. . . .

Armenian. — The Armenian population of the community numbers about 600, . . . Most of the Armenians work in the mills. Since constitutional government has been established in Turkey, egress from the Empire has been possible, and more Armenians have come to this country than formerly. This tendency is likely to continue, so that in time the Armenian population may equal the Syrian. Armenian immigration to Community A dates from about 15 years ago.

Lithuanian. — The first Lithuanian came to Community A in 1885 and the second in 1888. . . . In 1898 the Lithuanian population numbered 300. . . . The population has about doubled within the past three years, and at the present time numbers about 3,000 persons. The Lithuanians have been drawn to the community by the opportunity for employment in the mills.

Franco-Belgian. — These people are for the most part French-speaking textile workers from Belgium and the adjacent districts of France who have been coming to a number of American wool and worsted towns where they find employment as skilled operatives. The larger part are weavers. . . .

(2) *Present Foreign Population.* — [The racial composition of the city in 1905 has been estimated as follows:

Irish, 21,000; American, 12,000; French Canadian, 12,000; English, 9,000; Italian, 8,000; German, 6,500; Lithuanian, 3,000; Syrian, 2,700; Hebrew, 2,500; Scotch, 2,300; Polish, 2,100; Franco-Belgian, 1,200; Portuguese, 700; Armenian, 600; Other races, 1,400; total, 85,000.]

The proportion of foreign-born has varied but 4.1 per cent during [the period 1865-1905]. One important difference, however, between the earlier and later decades should be noted in judging of the community's power of assimilation. In 1865, the 9,217 foreign-born persons probably constituted by far the greater part of the "foreign" population, the native-born being largely of American stock, due to the fact that immigration had not been in progress for a long period. In 1909 the foreign-born population constituted a much smaller fraction of the "foreign" population; that is, a large native population of foreign antecedents has grown up between the American and the foreign-born immigrant. Thus, while probably not over half of the present population is foreign-born, approxi-

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mately only one-seventh of the population is American; that is, is not either of foreign birth or immediate foreign parentage. The result of this changed situation due to sixty years' continuance of immigration, is both favorable and unfavorable to the assimilation of the immigrant population. It is favorable in that a large Americanized population is present to serve as a model and incentive to later comers, who of whatever race, may see fellow-countrymen who have learned American ways, and who have succeeded under the new conditions. On the other hand, the presence of a large semi-Americanized foreign population makes it less and less certain that the newly-arrived stranger will be brought into direct contact with the American influences and traditions. He may become assimilated not with American ways of thinking and doing, but with a hyphenated Americanism which lacks some of the best elements of both its American and foreign sources. . . .

(3) *Racial Classification of Employees Studied.*—The racial make-up of the operating force of the industry in the community at the present time may be readily seen from the following table showing the number and per cent of each race employed in the local mills. The figures are practically a census of the local establishments and the exhibit is representative of the racial classification of employees in the community.

TABLE 10.—*Employees for whom Information was Secured, by Sex and General Nativity and Race.*

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE.	NUMBER			PERCENTAGES		
	Males	Females	Both Sexes	Males	Females	Both Sexes
All Races.	10,122	7,665	17,787	100.0	100.0	100.0
Native Born.	2,299	2,465	4,764	22.7	32.2	26.8
Native born of native father, . . .	690	550	1,240	6.8	7.2	7.0
Native born of foreign father, . . .	1,609	1,915	3,524	15.9	25.0	19.8
Foreign Born.	7,823	5,200	13,023	77.3	67.8	73.2
Armenian,	127	3	130	1.3	.1	0.7
Canadian, French,	373	592	965	3.7	7.7	5.4
Canadian, Other,	69	195	264	0.7	2.5	1.5
English,	1,684	781	2,465	16.6	10.2	13.9
Flemish,	35	8	43	0.3	0.1	0.2
French,	261	185	446	2.6	2.4	2.5
German,	556	229	785	5.5	3.0	4.4
Greek,	49	3	52	0.5	.1	0.3
Hebrew, Russian,	92	75	167	0.9	1.0	0.9
Irish,	564	513	1,077	5.6	6.7	6.1
Italian, North,	507	342	939	5.9	4.5	5.3
Italian, South,	1,543	1,012	2,555	15.2	13.2	14.4
Lithuanian,	558	276	834	5.5	3.6	4.7
Polish,	384	187	571	3.8	2.4	3.2
Portuguese,	56	69	125	0.6	0.9	0.7
Russian,	174	141	315	1.7	1.8	1.8
Scotch,	202	121	323	2.0	1.6	1.8
Syrian,	370	318	688	3.7	4.1	3.9
Austrian (race not specified),	13	78	91	0.1	1.0	0.5
Belgian (race not specified),	70	41	111	0.7	0.5	0.6
All others,	46	31	77	0.4	0.6	0.4

¹ Less than 0.05 per cent.

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According to the above table the foreign-born constituted 73.2 per cent of the 17,787 employees for whom information was obtained, while 19.8 per cent were native-born of foreign father, and 7.8 per cent were native-born of native father. Of the total number of employees considered the South Italians constituted 14.4 per cent; English, 13.9; Irish, 6.1; Canadian, French, 5.4; North Italians, 5.3; Lithuanians, 4.7; Germans, 4.4; Syrians, 3.9; and Polish, 3.2. No other race contributed over three per cent of the foreign-born. The North and South Italians taken together as one race constitute 19.7 per cent of the entire number of employees considered.

Among the foreign-born the males predominated, constituting 60.1 per cent of the total number of foreign born. Among the native-born, however, the females predominated slightly, constituting 51.7 per cent of the total number of native-born.

(bb) Economic Status.

(1) *Occupations before coming to the United States.* — A classification by occupation prior to immigration to this country of 6,054 male employees for whom complete data were obtained shows:

. . . that 35.4 per cent of the male employees were engaged in farming or were farm laborers before coming to the United States, 26.1 per cent were engaged in textile manufacturing, and 13.8 per cent were in hand trades. French show 86.7 per cent who have had previous experience in their present occupations; Germans follow in somewhat small proportion, while 55.1 per cent of English were engaged in textile manufacturing before coming to this country. Scotch also show comparatively large proportions, while only a small per cent of the other races had any previous experience in the industry under discussion. Lithuanians, Poles and Russians show a higher per cent who were farming or farm laborers before coming to the United States and Scotch, Germans, English, and French very small proportions. Armenians show the highest per cent who were engaged in hand trades before coming to the United States, and Syrians the highest per cent who were in trade, while North and South Italians show larger proportions than the other races who were in occupations other than specified. . . . The older immigrant races, those from Northern Europe, have had considerably more experience in the occupations in which they are now engaged than the more recent immigrants. . . .

Of 1,696 female employees reporting their occupation before coming to the United States, 49.6 per cent were engaged in textile manufacturing, 26.8 per cent were farming or farm laborers, 13.2 per cent were engaged in sewing, embroidering, or lace making, 5.4 per cent were in domestic service, while small proportions were in trade, and occupations other than specified. . . .

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(2) *Weekly Earnings.* — Of the male employees 18 years of age or over from whom information was secured almost all earn \$5 per week or over, 73.4 per cent earn \$7.50 or over, 38.9 per cent earn \$10 or over, 19.4 per cent earn \$12.50 or over, 6.4 per cent earn \$15 or over, and less than one per cent earn \$20 or over. The proportion of employees earning \$7.50 or over, \$10 or over, and \$12.50 or over per week, respectively, is considerably larger for the native-born of foreign father and native-born of native father than for the foreign-born. Among the foreign-born the French, English, Germans, Irish, Scotch, and French Canadians have large and the South Italians and Syrians comparatively small proportions of individuals earning \$7.50 per week or over, and the French, Germans, Scotch and English, in the order mentioned have large and the South Italians and North Italians small proportions of individuals earning \$10 per week or over. The proportions for individuals earning \$10 per week or over are largest for the Scotch, English, Germans and French Canadians, in the order mentioned. From the [data presented] . . . it appears that the individuals of the races of old immigration earn upon the average more than do the individuals of the races of recent immigration. . . .

. . . Nearly all of the female employees 18 years of age or over, for whom data were secured, earn \$5 per week or over, . . . 45.8 per cent earn \$7.50 or over, . . . 16.3 per cent earn \$10 or over, and . . . only a very small proportion earn \$12.50 or over. The proportion of individuals earning \$7.50 or over is largest for the native-born of foreign father, second largest for the native-born of native father, and smallest for the foreign-born, while a considerably larger proportion of the native-born of foreign father than of either the foreign-born or the native-born of native father earn \$10 or over. Among the foreign-born the Germans, French Canadians, Scotch, and French, in the order mentioned, have the largest proportions for individuals earning \$7.50 or over per week, and the Germans, French, and Scotch, in the order mentioned, the largest proportions for individuals earning \$10 or over per week. . . .

Of the male employees 14 and under 18 years of age for whom information was secured all earn \$2.50 or over, 98.7 per cent earn \$5 or over, 13.8 per cent earn \$7.50 or over, and only 2.1 per cent earn \$10 or over per week. . . .

. . . Of the female employees 14 and under 18 years of age for whom information is secured, all earn \$2.50 or over per week, 98.5 per cent earn \$5 or over, 19.1 per cent earn \$7.50 or over, and less than two per cent earn \$10 or over. . . .

(3) *Relation between Period of Residence and Earning Ability.* — The English, Irish, and Lithuanian are the only races that show any males who are earning less than \$5 per week. Of each of the other races, 100 per cent earn that amount or over per week. Of the persons earning less than \$5 per week, all of the English have been in this country five years or over, and all of the Irish have been here for 10 years or over. Of the Lithuanians earning less than \$5 per week, none have been in the United States from five to nine years. In no case is the proportion

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who earn under \$5 per week greater than two per cent. None of the French or Irish who have lived in this country from five to nine years earn under \$7.50 per week. The Syrians show the smallest proportion of males who earn \$7.50 or over per week. Of those who have lived here under five years the proportion earning that amount or over is only 13.5 per cent and in each of the other periods of residence the proportion is less than 50 per cent. The English who have been in this country for 10 years or more show 17.3 per cent as earning \$15 or over per week. This is the largest proportion for that specified rate. None of the North Italians or Lithuanians earn as much as \$15 per week, and less than 10 per cent in any specified age group of the Irish, South Italians, Poles, and Syrians earn that amount. The English, German, Irish, and French are the only races that show any persons who are earning \$20 or over per week. Of the English who have lived in this country for 10 or more years one per cent, and of the French 3.1 per cent, earn that amount. Less than one per cent each of the Germans and Irish whose residence here has been for 10 or more years earn not less than \$20 per week. . . .

(cc) Working Conditions.

(1) *Company Houses.* — All of the important companies in the community maintain tenement houses which they rent to their employees. Mill No. 4 has erected a number of modern tenements — 78 altogether — which are rented at very reasonable terms to its employees, chiefly second hands. It is considered desirable to have some of these living in the vicinity of the mill. Northern Europeans and Americans only are included among the tenants. These tenements rent for from \$2.85 to \$3.15 a week. Mill No. 2 maintains 42 tenements and eight boarding houses, erected a number of years ago. They are occupied largely by Italians, Poles, Portuguese, and other foreigners. The mill authorities state that they are inspected for cleanliness every Wednesday. They rent at from \$1.75 to \$3.50 per week, according to size and location. Mill operatives, it is stated, are unwilling to live in company houses, as they dislike to be herded and classed and desire to live as they please. Some difficulty is said to have been met with in securing tenants for the houses of mill No. 4 in spite of the newness of the houses and the favorable terms upon which they are rented. Only two or three tenements are owned by mill No. 1, and these only because they were located upon property which the mill desired to buy.

Somewhat closely related to company houses is the company restaurant, maintained by mill No. 4. Several hundred operatives secure their lunch in this way at a very small cost. The greater part of the operatives making use of this restaurant are English-speaking. Most of the recent immigrants either go to their homes during the noon hour, or, if they remain in the mill, prefer, for reasons of economy and privacy, to retire into some corner and eat the frugal lunch which they provide for themselves. It is probable that, if the immigrant operatives of the newer races should commence to patronize this restaurant in large numbers, the English-speaking patronage would fall off rapidly.

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Mill No. 4 has also provided a large and comfortable room with ample seating accommodations, where women and children bringing dinner to men in the mill may wait for the noon hour, and where dinners may be eaten. There is also an elevator provided, which obviates a fatiguing climb to the upper floors of the six-story mill building.

(2) *Night Work.* — [In two mills night work obtains in the carding and combing departments.] . . . At mill No. 1 the night work consists of five nights of 12 hours each, that is, the machinery runs continuously, but the men have a short time off for lunch. On Saturday at noon everything is closed until 6.30 Monday morning. The opinion was expressed by an official of this corporation that the trades unions will sooner or later succeed in having all night work in the State made illegal. Ten per cent higher rates of wages are paid the night force than obtain during the day for the same work. Wool washing is principally done at night. . . .

(3) *Regularity of Employment.* — . . . In general it may be said that a sharp reduction in the force employed took place after the panic in the Fall of 1907, that a gradual recovery followed, more rapid for some mills than for others, and that in May, 1909, there was little surplus labor unemployed in the community. During the industrial depression it was necessary to establish a system of public relief for recently-arrived immigrants who had fallen into destitution. Experiences of this sort confirm the fact that irregularity of work constitutes the most serious feature of millwork — from the point of view of the operative. . . .

(4) *Reasons for the Employment of Immigrants.* — The expansion of the worsted industry and the relative scarcity of American or English-speaking operatives at the wages paid appears to account for the very heavy increase in the numbers of the races from Southern and Eastern Europe and the Orient employed in Community A. There is little inducement to ambitious young people to enter the mills, and English-speaking parents appear to be increasingly unwilling that their children should do so. The occupations in a woolen mill are, with certain exceptions, monotonous and rather poorly paid. Consequently they appeal only to persons who are willing to put up with the mechanical monotony of the processes and whose standard of living is low enough for them to be attracted by the wages paid. . . .

Strikes have not played as important a part in this community as they have in cotton-mill centers in bringing about the introduction of foreign operatives. Recently, however, a strike in the wool sorting department of mill No. 4 led to the employment of a considerable number of Italian girls, a very decided innovation in worsted-mill operation. If it had been possible under the law, there is little question that the high degree of skill possessed by English weavers and other worsted operatives would have led to extensive efforts on the part of employers to supply a larger part of the demand from this source. . . .

(5) *Methods of Securing Immigrants.* — In Community A, as elsewhere, the channel of communication between the economic opportunity or labor demand

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in the United States and the labor supply abroad is ordinarily the oral or written accounts of immigrants who have worked in the worsted and cotton mills. In times of industrial prosperity, when increases in the labor force are made, or at other times, when a scarcity of native labor has resulted from causes which it is not necessary to go into, resort has apparently been had to various methods of encouraging the settlement of immigrant laborers in the community. According to an official of mill No. 1, that corporation spent in the neighborhood of \$1,000 in 1906 and 1907 securing labor. Competition for laborers was so spirited at that time that it extended to the very wharves, where an agent was maintained. An agent was also sent to the Western part of the State to induce operatives to come to Community A. A permanent shortage of from 50 to 200 hands in the spinning department alone existed for a long time. Freight charges on household goods as well as the railroad tickets of prospective employees were provided for by the mill. If it had not been illegal, a high grade of skilled textile operatives would have been brought from the Bradford district, in England. A local priest states that he has co-operated with one of the largest mills in the community by writing letters to other clergymen of the same denomination in Vermont and elsewhere urging them to send laborers to Community A.

The extent to which the mills have made attempts to induce immigrants to come to them from Europe is not so easily stated. . . .

It is certain that some organized effort has been made to place the demand for labor in Community A conspicuously before certain laboring populations of the Old World, in order to re-enforce the reports of returned immigrants and to increase the stream of foreign laborers destined to this community.

(6) *Relative Efficiency of Immigrants.* — It is not necessary to discuss the efficiency of the English-speaking races as worsted operatives, except to recall the fact that British operatives were largely instrumental in establishing that industry in Community A. Many Irish have been employed in the past and have made good operatives, although probably not greatly superior to the races employed more recently. Many skilled German weavers have made their home in the city and at one time mill No. 2 employed a large majority of these people. The French Canadians are found mainly in the cotton mills in Community A, remaining apparently in the industry in which the earliest immigrants of that race found employment.

The races which really figure in the situation to-day are the Italians, Poles, Syrians, and Lithuanians. The characterization of these races is in the nature of a summary of opinions expressed by a number of superintendents and foremen with whom the matter was discussed and refers particularly to the situation in mills Nos. 1 and 2. Of these races the Italians are the most numerous and have been most fully on trial. While opinions differ somewhat, there appears to be a considerable uniformity of judgment as to their characteristics. They are said to be the race best adapted to spinning. While industrious, they are said to be impulsive, erratic, and quick to leave their position if they see any

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apparent advantage elsewhere. One mill superintendent stated that "they no sooner get a job than they want something better; they work in droves; discharge one and they all go." Italians from the peninsula are preferred to Sicilians. It seems generally agreed that the Sicilians are less steady and less inclined to stick to a job day in and day out than other races. They will take a day off now and then whether they lose their positions or not. The Poles are the best liked of the recent immigrants in Community A. Aside from their intemperance, with its consequent fights, there seems to be no serious criticism passed upon them. They are not nimble, not good at the finer work, but for industry and steady, persevering effort all the year round they are rated well ahead of the Italians and in several departments at mill No. 1 are invariably hired in preference to any other recent immigrants. For example, it was stated that a few Poles had been hired in the top cellar because English-speaking people were hard to get and the Poles were thought to be the best of the foreigners. It appears that due to this practice at mill No. 1 foremen in other establishments who hold the same opinion have been unable to secure Polish operatives and have had to content themselves with Italians.

The Lithuanians are said to resemble the Poles in their industrial characteristics, but are thought to be less intelligent or, at any rate, more illiterate. The Syrians are somewhat less definitely placed in the estimation of employers — some speak well of them and others are critical. Many of them are very intelligent and possess considerable commercial ability; others apparently have a different reputation. . . .

(7) *Effect of Employment of Immigrants upon Early Employees.* — In general, the simpler, cruder processes have been taken over by immigrants, as, for example, the spinning and drawing. In other departments, such as wool sorting, mending, and dressing, the number of immigrants is negligible. . . .

Americans are given the preference whenever they can be secured, but the rate of wages in the presence of a large supply of immigrant laborers tends to decline, and for this and for social reasons American operatives are becoming more and more scarce in the mills. The French Canadians, who came a generation or two ago to compete with the Irish, British, and Americans, now feel the competition caused by the presence of thousands of Italians in the city. . . .

(8) *Changes in Wages.* — [An examination of the rates of wages paid at different dates in 13 principal occupations in the two largest mills in the community indicates] . . . an apparent increase of 19.65 per cent in the rate of weekly wages in these occupations during the past 20 years. Weavers' earnings would show a still larger increase, it is said, but in view of the difficulties surrounding an attempt to secure average earnings at so many periods for piece workers of this sort, slight emphasis was placed upon this item of information. Mill No. 2, however, enters the average earnings of weavers in 1889 as \$6 and as \$10.50 in 1909, an increase of 75 per cent. The hours, it will be noted, have been reduced from 60 to 58 per week during the 20-year period.

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TABLE 11.—*Statement showing Comparative Rates of Wages in Mill No. 1, 1889 and 1909.*

[Compiled from a more extended table.]

OCCUPATIONS.	JANUARY, 1889 (60 hours per week)		JANUARY, 1909 (58 hours per week)	
	Per Week	Cents Per Hour	Per Week	Cents Per Hour
Wool sorters,	\$11.00	1 -	\$14.20	1 -
Comb minders,	7.50	12.5	8.41	14.5
Gill-box minders,	5.70	9.5	6.38	11.0
Finishing-box minders,	5.70	9.5	6.84	11.8
			6.96	12.0
Drawing girls,	{ 6.60	11.0	{ 7.54	13.0
	{ 6.30	10.5	{ 8.12	14.0
Spinners,	5.70	9.5	7.25	12.5
Doffers,	3.60	6.0	7.83	13.5
Loomfixers,	13.20	22.0	8.12	14.0
Hander-in girls,	3.60	6.0	5.51	9.5
Warp dressers,	13.20	22.0	15.37	26.5
Burlers,	6.00	10.0	5.61	9.5
Beamers,	-	-	13.98	24.1
Perchers,	9.00	15.0	6.96	12.0
Dyehouse hands,	7.20	12.0	16.17	1 -
			10.15	17.5
			8.41	14.5

• 1 Piece-work.

(dd) *Salient Characteristics.*

(1) *Literacy.* — . . . The proportion of employees, both male and female, who are able to read and to read and write is considerably larger for the native-born of native father and the native-born of foreign father than for the foreign-born. Among the foreign-born the Scotch, followed by the Germans, English, Canadians other than French, Russian Hebrew, French, and Irish have the largest, and the Portuguese by far the smallest proportion of males who read, and the Scotch, followed by the Germans, English, Irish, Canadians other than French, and French Canadians have the largest, and the Syrians the smallest proportion of females who read only. The proportion of males who both read and write is largest for the Germans, followed by the English, Scotch, Canadians other than French, Russian Hebrews, and French, in the order mentioned, and the proportion of females who both read and write is largest for the Scotch, followed by the Germans, English, Irish, Canadians other than French, and French Canadians, in the order mentioned.

(2) *Conjugal Condition.* — Of 14,207 employees 20 years of age and over 43.9 per cent were single, 51.9 per cent married, and 4.2 per cent widowed. The corresponding percentages for the native-born were 58.5 per cent single, 37.0 per cent married, and 4.5 per cent widowed and for the foreign-born 40.2 per cent single, 55.7 per cent married, and 4.2 per cent widowed. The foreign-born, therefore, show a considerably lower percentage of single

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persons than the native-born. Of the foreign-born races the French, with 79.9 per cent married, show a larger proportion married than any other race.

. . . The proportion of husbands reporting wives in the United States is 100 per cent for the Irish. With this exception the French Canadians, Canadians other than French, Germans, English, and Scotch, have the largest proportions for husbands reporting wives in the United States. The proportion of husbands reporting wives in the United States is very much smaller for the Armenians than for the individuals of any other race. . . .

(3) *Visits Abroad.* — . . . The proportion of foreign-born male employees in the United States under five years who have made visits abroad is largest for the Canadians other than French and much larger for the French Canadians than for the individuals of any other race. The French Canadians, followed by the Scotch, English, and Canadians other than French, in the order mentioned, have the largest and the Syrians the smallest proportion of individuals in the United States from five to nine years who have made visits abroad, and the Scotch, followed by the French Canadians, Canadians other than French, and English, in the order mentioned, have the largest proportion of individuals who have been in the United States 10 years or over who have made visits abroad. . . .

(4) *Age.* — Of a total of 17,757 employees, 19.9 per cent are from 14 to 19, 25.8 per cent from 20 to 24, 16.8 per cent from 25 to 29, 10.9 per cent from 30 to 34, 15.1 per cent from 35 to 44, 7.8 per cent from 45 to 54, and 3.7 per cent 55 years of age or over. . . .

Among the foreign-born the Russian Hebrews, North Italians, South Italians, Portuguese, Russians, Lithuanians, and Syrians, report 50 per cent or more under 25 years of age. The English, French, Germans, Irish, and Scotch report 50 per cent or more 30 years of age or over. The Lithuanians show a comparatively high percentage from 25 to 29 years of age. . . .

(ee) General Progress and Assimilation.

(1) *Citizenship.* — Of 1,702 males who reported complete data and who have been in the United States five years or over, 21.5 per cent are fully naturalized and 31.2 per cent have first papers only. Of those with a residence of from five to nine years, 9.2 per cent are naturalized and 18.2 per cent have first papers. In the group of males who have been in the United States 10 years or over, 29 per cent are fully naturalized, and 39.1 per cent have first papers. Of all males who have been in the United States five years or over, Irish show the highest percentage fully naturalized, followed by Germans in somewhat smaller proportions. South Italians, English, and North Italians show very small proportions naturalized when compared with the races first mentioned. English show by far the highest per cent having first papers only and North Italians the lowest. . . .

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(2) *Ability to Speak English.* — The proportion of foreign-born employees who speak English is 47.3 per cent for the males, 34.4 per cent for the females, and 42.1 per cent for all individuals. The Germans, followed by the French Canadians and Russian Hebrews, in the order mentioned, have the largest and the South Italians the smallest proportion of males, and the Germans, followed by the Russian Hebrews and French Canadians, in the order mentioned, the largest and the Lithuanians the smallest proportion of females who are able to speak English. . . .

Information was obtained in this industry for 8,790 foreign-born employees, 42.1 per cent of whom speak English. Of those who have been in the United States under five years, 19.6 per cent speak English, as compared with 59 per cent of those with a residence of five to nine years, and 83.5 per cent of those with a residence of 10 years or over; thus it will be seen that the length of residence in the United States materially affects the ability of the foreign-born employees to speak English. It will also be seen from the preceding table that the Germans, without regard to the length of residence in the United States, show a considerably larger proportion who speak English than do the French Canadians. The French Canadians, in turn, show a much larger proportion who speak English than do the Syrians, Russians, or French, and a very much larger proportion than do the North Italians, Poles, Lithuanians, or South Italians — the last named reporting only 24.6 per cent. The males, it will be noted, in each period of residence group, show a considerably larger proportion than do the females. . . .

D. BOOT AND SHOE MANUFACTURING.¹**(a) Introductory.**

(1) *Territory Studied.* — In collecting data relative emphasis was placed upon different sections of the country according to the geographical distribution of the industry as indicated by the Federal Census of Manufactures of 1905. The operating forces of the factories were studied more intensively in Massachusetts and the other New England States because of the greater concentration of the industry in that section, but detailed data were also obtained from the shoe factory operatives of Illinois and Missouri and other States of the Middle West in order to ascertain conditions and to have a basis of comparison with New England.

(2) *Contents of Report.* — The report on this industry consists of three parts: I. A general survey of the industry in the United States, with statistical data obtained from employees in all sections of the country; II. A general statistical survey of the East, with an intensive study of two representative boot and shoe manufacturing communities in the New England States; and III. A general statistical survey of the Middle West. Except

¹ From Vol. 12 of the report of the United States Immigration Commission.

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for a brief review of Parts I and III, the present discussion of the report on this industry will be confined to data appearing in the intensive study of one of the two representative New England communities, as the facts presented will afford a basis of comparison with similar facts for boot and shoe manufacturing communities in Massachusetts.

(3) *General Survey.* — The general survey was based on information obtained for 19,946 operatives in all sections of the country. Of this number 72.7 per cent were native-born and 27.3 per cent foreign-born. The percentage who were foreign-born was only 11.1 for the Middle West as compared with 37.2 for the East. The number of males employed in this industry far out-numbered the females, the males constituting nearly two-thirds of the entire number of employees considered. The races most highly represented among the foreign-born are South Italians, Russian Hebrews, French and other Canadians, Greeks, Slovaks, Irish, North Italians, Germans, and English. In no case, however, did any of these races of foreign-born constitute more than 3.4 per cent of the total number of employees considered.

A study of 2,753 foreign-born shows that 41.4 per cent have had experience in shoe manufacturing before coming to the United States, 29.2 were farmers or farm laborers, 7.4 per cent were in hand trades, 8.3 per cent in trade, 5.0 per cent in manufacturing other than shoe manufacturing, 3.1 per cent in general labor, and 5.6 per cent in other occupations. The South Italians and Germans show over 60 per cent employed in shoe manufacturing before coming to the United States.

Although the general survey contained but little data making specific reference to Massachusetts, the study of the representative community appears to be of distinct value in that it presents data with which may be compared similar data for those cities in Massachusetts that are known to be distinctively boot and shoe manufacturing centers. As in the case of other industries, studies were made of representative communities engaged in the manufacture of boots and shoes, and for one of these communities data have been presented in the following paragraphs.

(b) *Study of a Representative Community.*

(aa) *Racial Classification.*

Original information was obtained for 463 households with 2,337 members, and detailed information was also secured for 4,959 operatives in the community. In this review attention will be directed principally to the matter having reference to the 4,959 operatives.

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The racial classification of the operating forces of the boot and shoe factories in this community is shown in the following table:

TABLE 12.—*Employees for Whom Information was Secured, by Sex and General Nativity and Races.*

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE.	NUMBER			PERCENTAGES		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Totals.	3,310	1,649	4,959	100.0	100.0	100.0
<i>Native Born.</i>						
Native-born of native father,	1,877	1,155	3,032	56.7	70.0	61.1
Native-born of foreign father,	1,181	677	1,858	35.7	41.1	37.4
Native-born of foreign mother,	696	478	1,174	21.0	29.0	23.7
<i>Foreign Born.</i>	<i>1,433</i>	<i>494</i>	<i>1,927</i>	<i>43.3</i>	<i>30.0</i>	<i>38.9</i>
Armenian,	51	5	56	1.5	0.3	1.1
Canadian, French,	203	72	275	6.1	4.4	5.5
Canadian, Other,	151	137	288	4.6	8.3	5.8
English,	74	34	108	2.2	2.1	2.2
Greek,	88	7	95	2.7	0.4	1.9
Hebrew, Russian,	247	74	321	7.5	4.5	6.5
Irish,	85	67	152	2.6	4.1	3.1
Italian, North,	103	16	119	3.1	1.0	2.4
Italian, South,	226	27	253	6.8	1.6	5.1
Swedish,	66	11	77	2.0	0.7	1.6
All others,	139	44	183	4.2	2.6	3.7

(bb) *History of Immigration.*

. . . Since 1875 there has been a marked increase in the proportion of foreign-born inhabitants. The first immigrants to come to the city in any number appear to have been the Irish. There were 1,857 of these people in the community in 1855, and 2,307 in 1865. From 1865 to 1895 the Irish population increased rapidly, but the figures for 1905 show a slight decrease. Even in 1905, however, the Irish are present in larger numbers than persons of any other European race. Canadian immigration to Community A has been heavy since 1875. Many of the persons of Canadian nativity are from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, and many others are of French descent. English and Scotch immigration, while not so heavy as the Irish and Canadian immigration, has been regular since before 1855. Since 1885 there has been a limited Scandinavian immigration. The immigration of persons of Southern [and] Eastern European nativity was very light until after 1895. By 1905, however, persons of Polish, Russian, Italian, and Austrian birth had come to the community in considerable numbers.

The foreign-born constituted 38.9 per cent of the total number considered, while 23.7 per cent were native-born of foreign father and 37.4 per cent were native-born of native father. The 10 leading races represented among the foreign-born were: Russian Hebrew, 6.5 per cent of the total number (4,959) considered; Canadian (other than French), 5.8 per cent; French Canadians, 5.5; South Italian, 5.1; Irish, 3.1; North Italian, 2.4; English,

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2.2; Greek, 1.9; Swedish, 1.6; and Armenian, 1.1 per cent. The males of each race specified exceeded the females, the excess being particularly large in the following races where the relative numbers were: Armenians, 51 males, five females; Greek, 88 males, seven females; North Italians, 103 males, 16 females; South Italians, 226 males, 27 females; and Swedish, 66 males, 11 females. In the case of the native-born the excess of males over females was not so large as in the case of the foreign-born, the native-born males numbering 1,877 and the native-born females numbering 1,155, as compared with 1,433 foreign-born males and 494 foreign-born females.

(cc) Economic Status.

(1) *Prior Occupation of Immigrants.* — Before immigrating to the United States, 60.8 per cent of the 863 foreign-born males were employed in shoe manufacturing, 5.6 per cent in manufacturing other than shoe manufacturing, 11.6 per cent as farmers or farm laborers, 1.5 per cent as general laborers, 5.7 per cent in hand trades, 10 per cent in trade, and 4.9 per cent in other occupations not specified. Over 88 per cent of both North and South Italians were engaged in shoe manufacturing. The French Canadians show 36.9 per cent who followed farming or farm labor before coming to the United States, whereas less than three per cent of any of the other races reported were so occupied. The Russian Hebrews showed 24 per cent engaged in trade, and each other race showed less than five per cent.

The following table shows by general nativity and race the number of male operatives reporting, the average wages per week, and the percentage who earned specified amounts each week:

TABLE 13. — Weekly Wages of Male Operatives 18 Years of Age and Over, with Percentages Earning Specified Amounts.

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE.	Number reporting	Average Earnings per week	PERCENTAGES EARNING SPECIFIED AMOUNTS PER WEEK				
			\$5 or over	\$10 or over	\$15 or over	\$20 or over	\$25 or over
Totals.	2,424	12.85	99.7	75.2	37.6	4.8	1.1
<i>Native Born.</i>							
Native-born of native father, white, .	1,312	13.71	99.7	83.8	47.0	5.9	1.4
Native-born of foreign father, . . .	831	13.85	99.6	85.6	48.3	6.5	1.8
Native-born of foreign mother, . . .	477	13.48	99.8	80.9	44.7	4.8	0.8
<i>Foreign Born.</i>							
Canadian, French,	1,112	11.83	99.6	64.9	26.4	3.5	0.6
Canadian, French,	160	13.29	100.0	78.8	41.9	4.4	1.3
Canadian, Other,	101	14.33	99.0	86.1	50.5	11.9	2.0
Hebrew, Russian,	195	10.93	99.5	59.0	17.9	0.5	0.0
Italian, North,	88	10.92	98.9	59.1	13.6	0.0	0.0
Italian, South,	205	10.38	100.0	51.2	11.2	1.5	0.0
All others,	363	1-	1-	1-	1-	1-	1-

¹ Not computed.

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(2) *Weekly Earnings.* — The average earnings per week of the 2,424 male employees 18 years of age and over were \$12.85, the average for the native-born being \$13.71 as compared with \$11.83 for the foreign-born. Of the several races of foreign-born specified, the Canadians (other than French) averaged \$14.33 per week (a rate higher than that of \$13.71 for the native-born); the French Canadians, \$13.29; the Russian Hebrews, \$10.93; North Italians, \$10.92; and South Italians, \$10.38. Of the 2,424 male employees considered, 75.2 per cent earned \$10 or over per week, 37.6 per cent earned \$15 or over, 4.8 per cent \$20 or over, and only 1.1 per cent as high as \$25. The Canadian (other than French) ranked highest among the several races of foreign-born with respect to the percentages of the total number receiving the higher rates of wages, the percentage receiving \$10 and over being 56.1 for this race as compared with 78.8 per cent for French Canadians, 59.0 per cent for Russian Hebrews, 59.1 per cent for North Italians, and 51.2 per cent for South Italians. The percentage receiving \$10 and over, \$15 and over, \$20 and over, and \$25 and over was even higher for the Canadians (other than French) than for the native-born.

In the case of the female employees 18 years of age and over the average weekly earnings of the native-born were \$8.42 and of the foreign-born \$7.79. Of the 1,026 female employees considered, 96.6 per cent earned \$5 or over; 63.4 per cent earned \$7.50 or over; 22.2 per cent earned \$10 or over; and 2.2 per cent earned \$15.00 or over.

(3) *Annual Earnings of Male Heads of Families.* — Of 393 male heads of families selected for study, 90.8 per cent earned under \$1,000 per year, 78.6 per cent under \$800, 57 per cent under \$600, 31.3 per cent under \$400, and 4.8 per cent under \$200, the average earnings being \$618. The foreign-born show a larger proportion than the native-born earning each specified amount and consequently lower average earnings — for example, 64.6 per cent of the foreign-born earned less than \$600 per annum as compared with only 33.3 per cent of the native-born. Of the French Canadian male heads of families the average annual earnings were \$759 as compared with \$756 for the foreign-born English and \$718 for the foreign-born Irish. The average annual earnings for foreign-born Lithuanians and Greeks were \$407 in each case, for the Armenians, \$416, and for the Polish \$420.

(4) *Annual Family Income.* — The earnings of the male heads of families are usually supplemented by incomes derived from various sources. Thus the average annual family income of the 430 families studied was \$13 as compared with the average annual earnings of \$618 by the male heads. The yearly income was less than \$1,500 for 91.6 per cent of the families, under \$1,000 for 74.7 per cent, under \$750 for 55.1 per cent, under \$500 for 30.9

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per cent, and under \$300 for 7.7 per cent, this latter group being composed entirely of families whose heads were foreign-born.

(5) *Wives at Work.* — Of 430 wives, 9.8 per cent were at work, the percentage of the native-born wives being 11.2 and of the foreign-born wives, 9.3. In the case of the foreign-born English wives, 34.8 per cent were at work, while the next highest percentages were 13.9 for Lithuanians, 13.6 for South Italians, and 12.2 for French Canadians. None of the 21 foreign-born Irish wives were at work.

A large proportion of the wives add to the family income by taking boarders or lodgers in the home so that when this source of income is taken into consideration it is found that 44.2 per cent of the foreign-born wives and 28.9 per cent of the native-born wives add to the family income either by working outside or by taking boarders or lodgers in the home.

(6) *Sources of Family Income.* — From a study of 430 families it was found that 69.4 per cent of family income was obtained by the husband, 3.3 per cent by the wife, 13.7 per cent by the children, 8.4 per cent from boarders and lodgers, and 5.1 per cent from other sources. Larger proportions of the total income was obtained by native-born husbands than by foreign-born husbands, the relative percentages being 76.4 and 66.1. The foreign-born children contributed 14.8 per cent of the total family income as compared with 11.2 per cent for the native-born children, while the payments by boarders and lodgers constituted 10.1 per cent of the total family income of the households having foreign-born heads as compared with 5.0 per cent for the households having native-born heads. The largest contributions by children were in the households whose heads were foreign-born Irish, the percentage of the total income being 54.1 and the next highest per cent was 22.6 for foreign-born Hebrews. Payments by boarders and lodgers constituted 16.3 per cent of the income of the Lithuanian families, 14.9 per cent in the case of Polish families, 11.4 per cent for foreign-born Hebrews, and 10.2 per cent for French Canadians.

(dd) Working Conditions.

(1) *Regularity of Employment.* — Of 716 male employees for whom information was obtained, 98.7 per cent had employment for three months or over, 91.5 per cent for six months or over, 67.6 per cent for nine months or over, and 30.4 per cent for the entire 12 months. The native-born were found to be rather more continuously employed than the foreign-born and of the foreign-born the Greeks, Armenians, and South Italians were the races less continuously employed.

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(2) *The Immigrant and Organized Labor.* — Of 641 male employees studied, 41.7 per cent were affiliated with trade unions, the percentage for the native-born being 37.8 as compared with 42.9 for the foreign-born. Among the foreign races, the English showed the largest proportion affiliated, namely, 73.5 per cent, while the Polish showed the smallest, 13.2 per cent.

(ee) Housing and Living Conditions.

(1) *Rent in its Relation to Standard of Living.* — For 385 households paying rent and reporting the amount it was found that the average monthly rent per apartment was \$14.70, the average rent per room was \$2.97, and the average rent per person was \$2.89. For households whose heads were foreign-born the average rental per apartment was considerably lower than for households whose heads were native-born, the relative average rentals being \$16.21 and \$13.88, but the rentals per room and per person were less in the case of the households whose heads were foreign-born, the relative rates being respectively \$3.26 and \$2.88 per room and \$3.89 and \$2.62 per person. Of the several foreign-born races the foreign-born English showed the highest rental per person, namely, \$4.35, and the Polish the lowest, \$1.23.

From a study of 463 households it was found that the average number of rooms per apartment was 4.97. Of the households having native-born heads, only 9.4 per cent occupied apartments of three rooms or less, while of the households having foreign-born heads, 15.6 per cent occupied apartments of three rooms or less.

(2) *Size of Households.* — The average number of persons per household was 5.05, for the households having native-born heads, 4.15, and for the households having foreign-born heads, 5.35. Of the households whose heads were native-born 36.8 per cent consisted of five or more members each, while of the households whose heads were foreign-born, 62.7 per cent consisted of five or more members.

(3) *Congestion.* — Of the households having native-born heads, 42.7 per cent were found to have two or more persons per sleeping room and 16.2 per cent with three or more persons per sleeping room, while for the households having foreign-born heads, 67.6 per cent had two or more persons per sleeping room and 21.7 per cent had three or more persons per sleeping room. In the case of the households having foreign-born Greeks as heads, 14.8 per cent had four or more persons per sleeping room. Some congestion of this character was also noted among South Italians, Hebrews, and Polish.

*Immigrants in Boot and Shoe Manufacturing.**(ff) Salient Characteristics.*

(1) *Literacy.* — Nearly all (98.9 per cent) of the 4,670 employees studied could read and 98.5 per cent could read and write. Of the foreign-born 97.3 per cent could read and 96.6 per cent could read and write. Among the foreign-born the North and South Italians, Greeks, Russian Hebrews, and Irish furnished the smallest percentages who could read and write, the lowest percentage being 91.6 per cent for the North Italians.

(2) *Conjugal Condition.* — Among the employees 20 years of age and over for whom information was secured, 61.9 per cent of the males and 36.7 per cent of the females were married, and 4.7 per cent of the males and 12.9 per cent of the females were widowed. A somewhat larger per cent of the foreign-born (36.8) were single than of the native-born (30.7).

(3) *Wives Abroad.* — A considerable number of the foreign-born male employees left their wives abroad upon immigrating to the United States. Thus, out of 734 male employees considered, 12.3 per cent reported wife abroad. The percentages for certain races were as follows: South Italian, 34.2; North Italian, 26.4; Russian Hebrew, 8.3; English, 4.4. None of the wives of Irish or Canadian (other than French) employees were abroad. In the case of the South Italians, 94 out of 117 who reported wives abroad had been in the United States for five years or over.

(4) *Visits Abroad.* — Of 425 employees considered, 30.5 had made at least one visit to their native country since first coming to the United States. For the South Italians the percentage was 21.1.

(5) *Charity.* — Of 1,431 persons who received charitable assistance in this locality 45.4 per cent were native-born and 54.6 per cent were foreign-born. The Irish constituted 18.4 per cent of the total number thus assisted.

(gg) General Progress and Assimilation.

(1) *Ownership of Homes.* — Home ownership by families the heads of which were of foreign birth may be considered as a strong indication of intention to reside in this country permanently. Of 525 families for whom information was obtained 14.1 per cent own their homes, the percentage for the native-born being 15.5 and for the foreign-born 13.6. The highest percentage for the foreign-born was that for the Irish, 54.8.

(2) *School Attendance.* — Information as to general nativity and race of father was obtained for 9,583 pupils in public schools and 2,959 pupils in parochial schools. The proportion of pupils of foreign parentage is 44.2 per cent in public schools and 68.4 per cent in parochial schools, while the

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proportion of children of native whites is 54.7 per cent in public and 31.6 per cent in parochial schools.

(3) *Citizenship.* — Of 320 foreign-born male employees who had been in the United States for five years or over and who were 21 years of age or over on arrival, 30.6 per cent were fully naturalized and 20.9 per cent had first papers only.

(4) *Ability to speak English.* — A study of 1,051 foreign-born persons six years of age and over showed that 68.2 per cent could speak English. Of the several races represented, the French Canadians showed the highest percentage, 93.5; Syrians, 90.7; Hebrews, 76.0; Armenians, 70.2; South Italians, 69.0; Lithuanians, 52.0; Greeks, 51.8; and Polish, 45.7. Of the total number of foreign-born males 77.6 per cent could speak English and of the females only 55.7 per cent. The inability of the females to speak English was particularly marked among the Greeks, Lithuanians, and Polish, the respective percentages able to speak English being 26.7, 28.0, and 37.5. Some progress in acquiring the ability to speak English is indicated by the fact that 93.6 per cent of those who have been in the United States 10 years or over can speak English, while for those who have been in the United States less than five years the percentage is only 50.5.

4. IMMIGRANTS AS CHARITY SEEKERS.

A. METHOD AND SCOPE OF THE INVESTIGATION.

In order to determine to what extent immigrants are the recipients of charity, the Immigration Commission planned an extensive investigation covering this phase of the immigration question. In addition to the original investigation the Commission has compiled existing federal statistics relative to immigrants and pauperism. This compilation consists of statistics from the United States Bureau of the Census and the United States Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, covering the period from 1850 to 1908. . . .

A schedule or form was drafted on which information was to be entered for each member of the family at home for each case, native or foreign-born, receiving assistance during a period of six months, from December 1, 1908, to May 31, 1909. The report for Boston . . . however, includes only the new cases assisted during this period. The information required for each case was apparent cause of need and aid given, and for each individual was race, sex, age, conjugal condition, occupation, and country of birth, and for the foreign-born individuals the additional information of years in the United States, ability to speak English, and political condition. No account was made of a case unless some assistance was given. The information required was entered on this schedule by an employee of the society, usually the registrar, and for this service a small payment was

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made by the Commission. A representative of the Commission visited these societies, with the exception of those in the far West, giving instructions as to the use of the schedule. . . .

As a part of its investigation the Commission made a study of the work done by charity organizations during the six months from December 1, 1908, to May 31, 1909, in 43 cities in the United States. Five of these cities, namely, Boston, Lynn, Malden, Springfield, and Worcester, are in Massachusetts, and for these five cities data have been selected for consideration in this Bulletin. The summary table which follows shows for each of these five cities the number of cases¹ reported, classified according to the general nativity and race of the head of the case.

TABLE 14.—Number of Cases Assisted in Specified Cities: By General Nativity and Race of Head of Case.

GENERAL NATIVITY AND RACE OF HEAD OF CASE.	Boston ²	Lynn	Malden	Springfield	Worcester
All Races.	1,010	394	83	197	220
Native Born.	390	182	36	163	99
Native-born of native father,	342	156	33	156	59
Native-born of foreign father,	48	26	3	7	40
Foreign Born.	620	212	47	34	121
Armenian,	1	11	—	—	4
Canadian, French,	7	7	—	1	15
Canadian, Other,	119	42	8	—	1
English,	51	10	2	12	6
German,	11	4	6	6	—
Hebrew,	23	28	13	—	1
Irish,	174	76	12	8	48
Italian, North,	6	—	—	—	3
Italian, South,	97	—	—	1	5
Italian (not specified),	24	10	—	3	—
Negro,	16	4	—	—	—
Norwegian,	5	—	—	—	—
Polish,	13	4	—	—	5
Portuguese,	5	—	1	—	—
Russian,	9	—	1	—	—
Scotch,	20	4	—	1	2
Swedish,	13	6	3	2	14
Syrian,	6	—	—	—	2
All other races,	20	6	1	—	15

The total number of cases for which information was secured by the Commission in 43 cities was 31,685. The head of the case was foreign-born in 38.3 per cent of the total number of cases. As compared with this showing, the percentages foreign-born in the Massachusetts cities were as follows: Boston, 61.4; Lynn, 53.8; Malden, 56.6; Springfield, 17.3; and Worcester 55.0.

¹ Each individual or family asking assistance is called a "case." No case is reported unless some assistance was given. Where a case consists of a family, "head of case" is the husband, if living at home, or the wife, if a widow or deserted.

² In this city new cases only are included.

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B. BOSTON.¹

(a) General Nativity and Race.

. . . The total number of cases assisted by the society reporting data was 1,006, and the total number of persons involved in these cases was 3,482.

Of the 1,006 cases, 616, or 61.2 per cent, were cases in which the head of the case was foreign-born and 390, or 38.8 per cent, were cases in which the head was native-born. Included with the native-born are 48 cases, or 4.8 per cent of the total number, in which the head was native-born of foreign father. . . .

Of the total number of persons, 2,266, or 65.1 per cent, were persons involved in cases in which the head was foreign-born, and 1,216, or 34.9 per cent, were persons involved in cases in which the head was native-born. Included with the native-born were 188 persons, or 5.4 per cent of the total number of persons, involved in cases in which the head was native-born of foreign father.

The greatest proportion of assistance given any single race was to the white, native-born of native father, with 308 cases assisted, or 30.6 per cent of the total number, involving 926 persons, or 26.6 per cent of the total number of persons. The Irish, Canadian, other than French, South Italian, English, Italian (not specified), Hebrew, and Scotch are the foreign-born races assisted by the society and showing percentages ranging in the order named from 11.8 to 2. The negro, native-born of native father, shows a percentage of 3.4, and the Irish, native-born of foreign father, 3.2. . . .

(b) Apparent Cause of Need.

. . . Lack of employment or insufficient earnings alone, or along with other causes, was the apparent cause of need in the greatest proportion of cases, having 46.5 per cent of the total number so reported. The cases in which the head was foreign-born report lack of employment or insufficient earnings as a cause of need in 44.7 per cent of their number and the native-born in 49.2 per cent. . . .

Neglect or bad habits of breadwinner includes desertion by husband, incarceration of breadwinner, intemperance of breadwinner, and neglect by breadwinner. This class of causes alone, or along with other causes, was reported in 20.1 per cent of the total number of cases, involving 23.3 per cent of the total number of persons. Of the cases in which the head was native-born, 22.6 per cent are so reported, and of the foreign-born 18.6 per cent.

Old age was reported as a cause of need in 5.7 per cent of the cases in which the head was foreign-born and in 5.1 per cent of the cases in which the head was native-born. . . .

¹ The report furnished by the Associated Charities of Boston includes only the new cases assisted by that Society from December 1, 1905, to May 31, 1906.

*Immigrants as Charity Seekers.**(c) Aid Given.*

. . . Food or meals were given to 45.4 per cent of the total number of cases, medicine or medical assistance to 27 per cent, fuel to 20 per cent, employment secured for 13.9 per cent, cash to 12.1 per cent, and clothing to 9.4 per cent. . . .

(d) Persons per Case.

. . . Of a total of 1,006 cases, 425, or 42.2 per cent, consisted of from two to four persons, which group contains the largest proportion of cases; 276, or 27.4 per cent, of from five to eight persons; 274, or 27.2 per cent, of but one person; and 31, or 3.1 per cent, consisted of nine or more persons. . . .

(e) "Type" of Case.

. . . The tables show that 471 cases, or 46.8 per cent of the total number, consist of husband and wife, with or without children. Of this number 175 cases consist of husband and wife with one or two children and 174 cases consist of husband and wife with from three to five children.

The cases consisting of widow, with or without children, are 236, or 23.5 per cent of the total number. Of this number 106 cases consist of widow with one or two children. The term "widow," as used in this table, includes, besides the widowed, deserted, or divorced, those wives whose husbands are residing elsewhere and unmarried mothers living with their children.

The cases consisting of widower, with or without children, are 67, or 6.7 per cent of the total number, and of this number 56 cases consist of widowers alone.

Cases in which there are persons other than husband, wife, and children and cases in which there is neither husband nor wife, have been classed as "others." Cases under this class numbered 232, or 23.1 per cent of the total number, and of this number 142 cases consisted of but one person. . . .

The report for Boston contained 47 cases, or 7.6 per cent of the total number consisting only of husband and wife. . . .

(f) Age of Persons Involved in Cases Assisted.

. . . Of a total of 3,339 persons involved in the cases assisted reporting age, 1,598, or 47.9 per cent, were under 16 years of age; 1,172, or 35.1 per cent, were from 16 to 39 years of age; 424, or 12.7 per cent, were from 40 to 59 years of age; and 145, or 4.3 per cent, were 60 years of age or over. . . 1,480, or 44.3 per cent of the total number reporting age, were children 13 years of age or under, and . . . 754, or 22.6 per cent, were children less than six years of age. . . .

(g) Conjugal Condition of Persons Involved in Cases Assisted.

. . . Of the 1,575 persons 20 years of age or over reporting conjugal condition, 1,019, or 64.7 per cent, were married; 306, or 19.4 per cent, were deserted,

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separated, or widowed; and 250, or 15.9 per cent, were single. The foreign-born have the larger proportion of persons married, and the native-born the larger proportion of persons deserted, separated or widowed, and single. The large proportion of single persons among the native-born of foreign father is undoubtedly due to the fact that over one-half of such persons are between the ages of 20 and 29.

The South Italian show the largest proportion, or 73.5 per cent, married, and the white, native-born of native father, the smallest, or 60.2 per cent. . . .

The total number of cases in which the wife is the head of the case and reported deserted, separated, or widowed is 250. Of this number, 171, or 68.4 per cent, are widowed, and 79, or 31.6 per cent, are deserted or separated. The cases in which the head is a widow represent 17 per cent of the total number and those in which the head is reported deserted or separated represent 7.9 per cent of the total number. . . .

(h) General Occupation of Children.

. . . A total of 829 children, six and under 16 years of age, were involved in the cases assisted. Of this number 87.7 per cent were at school, 8.9 per cent were at home, and 3.4 per cent were at work. . . .

. . . The proportion of foreign-born children at work was 3.2 per cent, native-born of foreign father 3.7 per cent, total native-born 3.4 per cent, and white, native-born of native father 2.7 per cent.

The Irish and South Italian, native-born of foreign father, show the largest proportion of children at school, 95.3 and 94.3 per cent, respectively. . . .

(i) Years in United States.

. . . The foreign-born heads of cases reporting years in the United States numbered 522. Of this number, 20.7 per cent have lived in the United States less than five years, 42.5 per cent less than 10 years, and 73 per cent less than 20 years. . . .

(j) Ability to Speak English.

. . . Of the total number reporting, 74.9 per cent speak the English language, with 77.4 per cent of the males and 72.7 per cent of the females. Of the foreign-born, 67.4 per cent speak English, with 71.3 per cent of the males and 63.8 per cent of the females. Of the native-born of foreign father, 98.8 per cent speak English, with 100 per cent of the males and 98 per cent of the females. The proportion speaking English of the Hebrews is 75 per cent, South Italians 54.4 per cent, and Italian (not specified) 61.2 per cent. . . .

(k) Citizenship.

. . . Of the 127 [foreign-born males over 21 years of age on arrival, who have been in the United States five years or over] reporting citizenship, 63, or 49.6

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per cent, were either fully naturalized or had their first papers; 56, or 44.1 per cent, were fully naturalized; and seven, or 5.5 per cent, had first papers only. Of the three races included in this table, 69.7 per cent of the Irish were fully naturalized, 55 per cent of the Canadian (other than French) were fully naturalized, and 21.4 per cent of the South Italian were fully naturalized, and 7.1 per cent had first papers only.

5. IMMIGRATION AND CRIME.

A. INTRODUCTORY.

The data here presented, having reference to Immigration and Crime, have been taken from Volume 36 of the Reports of the Commission. The following paragraphs summarize the principal results of the study of the statistics on the subject to which the Commission had access:

No satisfactory evidence has yet been produced to show that immigration has resulted in an increase in crime disproportionate to the increase in adult population. Such comparable statistics of crime and population as it has been possible to obtain indicate that immigrants are less prone to commit crime than are native Americans.

The statistics do indicate, however, that the American-born children of immigrants exceed the children of natives in relative amount of crime. It also appears from data bearing on the volume of crime that juvenile delinquency is more common among immigrants than it is among Americans. There are, however, two factors affecting these conclusions. First, immigrants are found in greater proportion in cities than in rural communities, and the criminality of the children of immigrants is largely a product of the city. Second, the majority of the juvenile delinquents are found in the North Atlantic States, where immigrants form a larger proportion of the population than in any other section of the country. This excessive representation of immigrants in the population of that group of States which reports the largest number of juvenile delinquents makes the percentage of immigrant juvenile delinquents¹ in the country at large greater than it would be if the immigrant population were more evenly distributed throughout the United States.

Is the volume of crime in the United States augmented by the presence among us of the immigrant and his offspring? is the question usually asked first in considering the relation of immigration to crime. In natural sequence to it is the further question, If immigration increases crime, what races are responsible for such increase? No one has satisfactorily answered these questions; no one can answer them fully without a machinery far greater than that which the Immigration Commission has had at its disposal.

In order even closely to approximate accuracy in answering these questions,

¹ Juvenile delinquency differs greatly in the several sections of the country, being very largely determined by local conditions such as the existence of children's courts and reformatory institutions.

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at least the following facts are necessary: The age, sex, race, and offense of every offender committed to a penal institution during a definite period of time, and the age, sex, and race of every person in the general population on a date falling within that period of time. Such facts have never been ascertained. Without them all conclusions regarding the relative amount of crime committed by immigrants and natives must be largely conjectural.

Such figures as are presented in the Census reports indicate that immigration has not increased the volume of crime to a distinguishable extent, if at all. In fact, the figures seem to indicate a contrary result.

Immigration has, however, evidently made changes in the character of crime in the United States. Whether these changes are for better or for worse must be left to individual decision. The determination of the nature of these changes has been the chief work undertaken in this investigation of immigration and crime. From the data gathered it is evident that immigration has had a marked effect upon the nature of the crimes committed in the United States. This effect has been to increase the commission of offenses of personal violence (such as abduction and kidnapping, assault, homicide, and rape), and of that large class of violations of the law known as offenses against public policy (which include disorderly conduct, drunkenness, vagrancy, the violation of corporation ordinances, and many offenses incident to city life). It is also probable that immigration has somewhat increased offenses against chastity, especially those connected with prostitution. That certain offenses of pecuniary gain, such as blackmail and extortion and the receiving of stolen property, are more common now because of immigration is likewise possible, but it can not be said that the majority of the gainful offenses have increased because of immigration. Indeed, the data analyzed in this report appear to indicate a far greater commission of such offenses by Americans than by immigrants.

Some of the changes in the character of crime may be traced to immigration from specific countries, although the difficulty of obtaining data regarding race has rendered the determination of racial influences almost impossible. The increase in offenses of personal violence in this country is largely traceable to immigration from Southern Europe, and especially from Italy. This is most marked in connection with the crime of homicide; of all the various race and nationality groups appearing in the data collected, the Italian stands out prominently as having the largest percentage of cases of homicide among its crimes. Abduction and kidnapping likewise have evidently become more prevalent because of Italian immigration. The increase in offenses against public policy is perhaps more due to the growth of cities and the resultant increase in the number of forbidden acts than it is to immigration. To immigration, however, some increase in the commission of these acts is evidently due and may be largely traced to immigration from Ireland, Scotland, Italy, Greece, and Russia. The Irish and Scotch immigrants are notable in penal records for intoxication, the Italian for offenses of violence against public policy, and the Greek and Russian for the violation of

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corporation ordinances in large cities. Such probable increase in offenses against chastity as appears due to immigration is chiefly of crimes connected with prostitution, and has evidently been largely caused by immigration from France and Russia. . . .

B. CHARACTER AND SCOPE OF THE INVESTIGATION.

. . . The investigation was . . . confined to a determination, in so far as possible, of the changes in the *character* of crime in the United States which had resulted from immigration and of the crimes peculiar to various immigrant races and nationalities. . . .

. . . After a general survey of the possible sources of criminal statistics in this country, the following were selected as affording the greatest amount of data for the purpose of the Commission: I. Court records; II. Records of penal institutions; III. Records of arrests by the police of various cities. . . .

From these sources records of 1,179,677 criminal cases were obtained. The dissimilarity of the sources, however, detracts from their strict comparability, and the figures from each source must be subjected to separate analysis. . . .

[Of these three classes of records the commitments to all Massachusetts penal institutions, October 1, 1908, to September 30, 1909, constituted 31,653 criminal cases considered and a digest of these data having reference to Massachusetts is herewith presented.]

C. COMMITMENTS TO MASSACHUSETTS PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

From the data of commitments to Massachusetts penal institutions¹, October 1, 1908, to September 30, 1909, five immigrant and five second-generation groups have likewise been selected for comparison with persons native-born of native father. No separation, however, of the white and negro constituents of the latter group is possible. . . . Furthermore, the Massachusetts records do not contain any classification of the foreign-born by race, nor of the native-born by race of father. The classification is . . . by country of birth. Thus, in the following discussion the term "nationality" is used to indicate the country of birth of the foreign-born, and when reference is made to the "second generation" it should be interpreted as meaning the American-born children of the designated "nationality." For example, by first-generation Canadians are meant persons born in Canada, while by second-generation Canadians are meant persons born in the United States whose fathers were born in Canada. . . .

Only one of the five second-generation groups shows, in the date of commitments to Massachusetts penal institutions, a persistent deviation in the character of its criminality from the corresponding immigrant group in the direction of the native-born of native father. This group is the second-generation Irish.

¹ Excluding the State Farm.

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(a) Classes of Crime.

The four general classes of crime occur among the 11 groups of offenders selected for analysis as follows:

TABLE 15.—*Classes of Crimes, First and Second Generations Compared: Massachusetts Penal Institutions, October 1, 1908, to September 30, 1909.*

Number.

CLASSIFICATION.	Totals	Gainful Offenses	Offenses of Personal Violence	Offenses Against Public Policy	Offenses Against Chastity	Unclassified Offenses
Native born of native father, . . .	5,288	1,090	278	3,598	203	119
Canadian:						
Immigrant,	2,675	308	134	2,038	134	61
Second generation,	1,176	220	52	831	43	30
English:						
Immigrant,	1,036	78	55	848	29	26
Second generation,	529	76	23	400	12	18
German:						
Immigrant,	155	30	12	104	5	4
Second generation,	200	36	8	138	5	13
Irish:						
Immigrant,	6,351	282	189	5,718	70	92
Second generation,	7,278	726	260	6,074	113	105
Scotch:						
Immigrant,	439	37	12	376	8	6
Second generation,	271	38	4	212	9	8

Percentages of Total Number.

Native-born of native father, . . .	100.0	20.6	5.3	68.0	3.8	2.3
Canadian:						
Immigrant,	100.0	11.5	5.0	76.2	5.0	2.3
Second generation,	100.0	18.7	4.4	70.7	3.7	2.5
English:						
Immigrant,	100.0	7.5	5.3	81.9	2.8	2.5
Second generation,	100.0	14.4	4.3	75.6	2.3	3.4
German:						
Immigrant,	100.0	19.4	7.7	67.1	3.2	2.6
Second generation,	100.0	18.0	4.0	69.0	2.5	6.5
Irish:						
Immigrant,	100.0	4.4	3.0	90.0	1.1	1.5
Second generation,	100.0	10.0	3.6	83.5	1.6	1.3
Scotch:						
Immigrant,	100.0	8.4	2.7	85.6	1.8	1.5
Second generation,	100.0	14.0	1.5	78.2	3.3	3.0

Other tables are presented in the Commission's report showing in further detail the distribution of crimes for four groups of offenses characterized as "gainful," "personal violence," "against public policy," and "against chastity," together with a group of five tables showing "the relations of second generation to immigrant groups and to the group of persons native-born of native father." There are also appended seven general tables which present in elaborate detail by offenses and by nativity and race of offenders, the information obtained from the Massachusetts penal institutions.

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III. POPULATION STATISTICS — CENSUS OF 1910.

1. INTRODUCTORY.

The composition and characteristics of the population of Massachusetts in 1910, as determined by the Federal Census of that year, are considered in the second population bulletin for Massachusetts issued in March, 1913, by the Bureau of the Census of the Federal Department of Commerce. In explanation of the method of presenting the statistics of population the following paragraphs were included in the text accompanying the statistical tables appearing in the bulletin:

On account of the wide differences in characteristics among the different classes of the population, the statistics on each subject are shown according to race, and for the whites according to nativity and parentage. Classification according to nativity and parentage is scarcely necessary for the other races, since nearly all negroes and Indians are native born of native parentage, and nearly all Chinese and Japanese either foreign born or of foreign parentage.

The white population is divided into four groups: (1) Native, native parentage — that is, having both parents born in the United States; (2) native, foreign parentage — having both parents born abroad; (3) native, mixed parentage — having one parent native and the other foreign born; (4) foreign born. As the second and third classes do not differ greatly in characteristics, they are combined in some of the tables; in a few cases all three native white classes are combined.

Since marked differences often exist between urban and rural communities with respect to the composition and characteristics of the population, it is desirable that the two classes be distinguished in presenting census data. The Bureau of the Census has undertaken to do this by classifying as urban all incorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more. In New England, however, where many villages of considerable size are not separately incorporated, it was deemed best to classify also towns of 2,500 or more inhabitants as urban, although this classification is not very satisfactory because such towns generally include more or less population that is essentially rural.

For our present purpose the more important data bearing upon the subject of immigration to Massachusetts have been selected for publication in this article, some re-arrangement of the tabular matter having been resorted to in order to conserve space and to secure uniformity in tabular makeup. Particular reference to color, nativity, and foreign nationality has been made in the Census Bulletin in the paragraphs reprinted herewith:

Color and Nativity. . . . — Of the total population of Massachusetts, 1,103,429, or 32.8 per cent, are native whites of native parentage; 1,170,447, or 34.8 per cent,

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are native whites of foreign or mixed parentage; 1,051,050, or 31.2 per cent, are foreign-born whites; and 38,055, or 1.1 per cent, are negroes. The corresponding percentages in 1900 were 36.8, 32, 29.9, and 1.1, respectively, the proportion of native whites of native parentage having decreased during the decade. In 8 of the 14 counties more than one-fourth of the population is foreign-born white, the maximum percentage — 37.6 — being that for Bristol County. In 10 counties the population is more than one-fourth native white of foreign or mixed parentage, the maximum percentage — 38.2 — being that for Suffolk.

Of the urban population, 30.8 per cent are native whites of native parentage; of the rural, 58.6 per cent. The corresponding proportions for native whites of foreign or mixed parentage are 35.7 and 22.5 per cent, respectively. The percentage of foreign-born whites is 32.3 in the urban population and 17.6 in the rural; the percentage of negroes, 1.1 in the urban and 1.2 in the rural. . . .

Foreign Nationalities. . . . — Of the foreign-born white population of Massachusetts, persons born in Canada represent 28.1 per cent (those of French parentage 12.8, and all others, 15.3); Ireland, 21.2; Russia, 11.2; England, 8.8; Italy, 8.1; Sweden, 3.8; Austria, 3.4; Germany, 2.9; Scotland, 2.7; Portugal, 2.4; all other countries, 7.4 per cent. Of the total white stock of foreign origin, which includes persons born abroad and also natives having one or both parents born abroad, Ireland contributed 28.5 per cent; Canada, 27.2 (French stock, 13.3, and all others, 13.9); England, 8.3; Russia, 7.9; Italy, 5.9; Germany, 3.5; Sweden, 3.1; Scotland, 2.5; Austria, 2.4 per cent.

TABLE 16. — *Color, Natirity, and Parentage of the Population of Massachusetts.*

CLASSES OF POPULATION.	NUMBER			PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL		
	1910	1900	1890	1910	1900	1890
The State.	3,366,416	2,805,346	2,238,947	100.0	100.0	100.0
White,	3,324,926	2,769,764	2,215,373	98.8	98.7	98.9
Negro,	38,055	31,974	22,144	1.1	1.1	1.0
Indian,	688	587	423	— ¹	— ¹	— ¹
Chinese,	2,552	2,968	934	0.1	0.1	— ¹
Japanese,	151	53	18	— ¹	— ¹	— ¹
All other 'Hindu',	14	—	—	— ¹	—	—
Total native,	2,307,171	1,959,022	1,551,810	68.5	69.8	70.6
Total foreign born,	1,059,245	846,324	657,137	31.5	30.2	29.4
Native white, total,	2,273,876	1,929,650	1,561,870	67.5	68.8	69.8
Native parentage,	1,103,429	1,032,264	955,430	32.8	36.8	42.7
Foreign parentage,	846,520	650,694	472,493	25.2	23.2	20.7
Mixed parentage,	323,627	246,692	143,947	9.6	8.8	6.4
Foreign-born white,	1,051,050	840,114	653,503	31.2	29.9	29.2

¹ Less than one-tenth of one per cent.

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TABLE 17.—Foreign White Population of Massachusetts in 1910, with Comparative Figures for Foreign-Born White Population in 1900: By Nationalities.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN WHICH BORN, OR, IF NATIVE, IN WHICH PARENTS WERE BORN.	WHITE POPULATION OF FOREIGN BIRTH OR FOREIGN PARENTAGE, 1910						Foreign-born White Population, 1900	
	TOTAL		FOREIGN-BORN		NATIVE			
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages	Both Parents Foreign-born	One Parent Foreign-born		
All Countries.	2,221,497	100.0	1,051,050	100.0	846,820	323,627	840,114	
Atlantic islands,	19,622	0.9	11,128	1.1	7,219	1,275	4,100	
Austria,	53,711	2.4	35,455	3.4	17,313	943	12,931	
Belgium,	2,162	0.1	1,745	0.2	276	141	509	
Canada — French,	295,282	13.3	134,059	12.8	111,952	45,671	134,387	
Canada — Other,	308,487	13.9	160,972	15.3	61,275	86,240	156,898	
Denmark,	6,072	0.3	3,403	0.3	1,706	963	2,467	
England,	184,347	8.3	92,465	8.8	45,220	46,662	82,303	
Finland,	16,170	0.7	10,744	1.0	5,244	182	5,104	
France,	9,909	0.4	5,916	0.6	2,026	1,967	3,901	
Germany,	77,728	3.5	30,554	2.9	34,142	13,032	32,926	
Greece,	12,416	0.6	11,413	1.1	907	96	1,843	
Holland,	2,881	0.1	1,592	0.2	901	385	993	
Hungary,	3,129	0.1	1,996	0.2	998	135	926	
Ireland,	633,022	28.5	222,562	21.2	315,425	94,735	249,903	
Italy,	130,577	5.9	85,056	8.1	42,607	2,914	28,784	
Newfoundland,	3,007	0.1	1,751	0.2	765	491	1	
Norway,	8,370	0.4	5,482	0.5	2,170	768	3,334	
Portugal,	41,431	1.9	25,445	2.4	13,800	2,186	12,811	
Russia,	176,499	7.9	117,260	11.2	56,962	2,277	37,919	
Scotland,	55,482	2.5	28,411	2.7	14,602	12,460	24,323	
Sweden,	68,468	3.1	39,560	3.8	25,149	3,739	32,189	
Switzerland,	2,408	0.1	1,341	0.1	508	559	1,277	
Turkey in Asia,	15,805	0.7	12,546	1.2	3,099	160	2,893	
Turkey in Europe,	3,943	0.2	3,592	0.3	315	36	2,893	
Wales,	3,228	0.1	1,513	0.1	552	1,163	1,676	
All other,	2 87,341	3.9	4,239	0.4	2 \$1,687	1,415	5,712	

¹ Included with Canada.² Includes native whites whose parents were born in different foreign countries; for example, one parent in Ireland and the other in Scotland.

TABLE 18.—Native and Foreign-Born White Population of Massachusetts in 1910: By Age Periods.

AGE PERIODS.	NUMBER				PERCENTAGES			
	NATIVE WHITE		FOREIGN-BORN WHITE		NATIVE WHITE		FOREIGN-BORN WHITE	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All Ages.	1,109,359	1,164,517	524,128	526,922	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 5 years,	160,138	156,732	4,220	4,237	14.4	13.5	0.8	0.8
5 to 9 years,	136,136	133,735	11,030	10,969	12.3	11.5	2.1	2.1
10 to 14 years,	126,612	126,085	14,622	14,627	11.4	10.8	2.8	2.8
15 to 19 years,	114,163	116,806	29,980	32,560	10.3	10.0	5.7	6.2
20 to 24 years,	94,073	102,356	60,745	64,057	8.5	8.8	11.6	12.2
25 to 34 years,	151,679	166,554	136,245	129,926	13.7	14.3	26.0	24.7
35 to 44 years,	127,184	135,688	117,957	112,029	11.4	11.7	22.5	21.3
45 to 64 years,	152,807	164,812	118,232	120,817	13.8	14.1	22.6	22.9
65 years and over,	45,303	60,896	30,308	37,237	4.1	5.2	5.8	7.1
Age unknown,	1,264	823	789	463	0.1	0.1	0.1	—

¹ Less than one-tenth of one per cent.

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TABLE 19.—*School Age and Attendance of Native White and Foreign-Born White Population of Massachusetts in 1910, with Percentages.*

AGE PERIODS.	NUMBER ¹			PERCENTAGES ATTENDING SCHOOL		
	NATIVE WHITE		Foreign-born White	NATIVE WHITE		Foreign-born White
	Native Parentage	Foreign or Mixed Parentage		Native Parentage	Foreign or Mixed Parentage	
6 to 20 years, inclusive, . . .	278,717	459,778	133,312	73.7	70.3	39.8
Males,	139,173	228,856	64,481	73.1	70.2	41.6
Females,	139,544	230,922	68,831	74.4	70.4	38.1
6 to 9 years,	75,349	138,415	18,347	91.7	91.3	85.3
10 to 14 years,	93,355	159,342	29,249	95.6	94.6	89.9
15 to 17 years,	55,075	87,143	27,714	60.7	41.9	25.9
18 to 20 years,	54,938	74,878	58,002	24.9	12.9	6.8
Urban Population.						
6 to 14 years,	147,663	284,088	46,036	94.0	93.1	88.1
15 to 20 years,	96,983	155,197	82,534	42.9	28.4	13.1
Rural Population.						
6 to 14 years,	21,041	13,669	1,560	93.4	92.1	88.3
15 to 20 years,	13,030	6,824	3,182	42.3	30.8	9.1

¹ Includes all persons within age periods specified, whether attending or not attending school.

TABLE 20.—*Number and Percentage of Illiterate Persons Ten Years of Age and Over in Massachusetts in 1910: By Nativity and Color.*

CLASSIFICATION.	NUMBER ILLITERATE				PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL			
	NATIVE WHITE		Foreign-born White	Negro	NATIVE WHITE		Foreign-born White	Negro
	Native Parentage	Foreign or Mixed Parentage			Native Parentage	Foreign or Mixed Parentage		
The State,	3,428	5,735	129,412	2,584	0.4	0.7	12.7	8.1
Males,	1,944	2,647	61,402	1,286	0.4	0.7	12.1	8.2
Females,	1,484	3,088	68,010	1,298	0.3	0.8	13.3	8.1
Urban Population, . .	2,693	5,179	122,924	2,086	0.3	0.7	12.6	7.1
Males,	1,483	2,331	57,668	959	0.4	0.6	11.9	6.7
Females,	1,210	2,848	65,256	1,127	0.3	0.7	13.2	7.4
Rural Population, . .	735	556	6,488	498	0.6	1.5	15.6	22.7
Males,	461	316	3,734	327	0.8	1.7	16.6	25.0
Females,	274	240	2,754	171	0.5	1.3	14.5	19.4

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TABLE 21. — *Marital Condition of Persons 15 Years of Age and Over in Massachusetts in 1910: By Color and Race.*

MARITAL CONDITION.	NUMBER ¹			PERCENTAGES				
	NATIVE WHITE		Foreign-born White	Negro	NATIVE WHITE		Foreign-born White	Negro
	Native Parent-age	Foreign or Mixed Parent-age			Native Parent-age	Foreign or Mixed Parent-age		
Males, 15 years of age and over, ¹	388,440	298,033	494,256	14,237	—	—	—	—
Single,	140,370	174,172	157,136	5,941	36.1	58.4	31.8	41.7
Married,	221,584	115,191	310,195	7,391	57.0	38.7	62.8	51.9
Widowed,	23,076	7,548	25,379	753	5.9	2.5	5.1	5.3
Divorced,	2,503	878	859	87	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.6
Females, 15 years of age and over, ¹	418,954	329,011	497,089	14,576	—	—	—	—
Single,	148,497	178,439	133,251	4,783	35.4	54.2	26.8	32.8
Married,	206,461	131,046	299,648	7,232	49.3	39.8	60.3	49.6
Widowed,	60,210	18,192	62,623	2,447	14.4	5.5	12.6	16.8
Divorced,	3,487	1,077	1,209	100	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.7

¹ Totals include persons whose marital condition is unknown.

Immigrant Population Statistics — 1910.

TABLE 22.—Population in 1910 of Cities and Towns in Massachusetts Having Population of 10,000 or Over, by Color and Race, with Percentages of Foreign-Born Whites to Total Population.

CITIES AND TOWNS (Population of 10,000 or over).	Total Popula- tion	NATIVE WHITE			Foreign- born White	Negro ¹	All Others ²	Percent- age Foreign- born White to Total Popula- tion
		Native Parent- age	Foreign or Mixed Parent- age	Total				
Adams, . . .	13,026	2,597	5,323	7,920	5,097	4	5	39.1
Arlington, . . .	11,187	4,279	4,078	8,357	2,758	67	5	24.7
Attleborough, . . .	16,215	5,942	5,669	11,611	4,453	138	13	27.5
BEVERLY, . . .	18,650	9,124	4,795	13,919	4,661	51	19	25.0
BOSTON, . . .	670,585	157,870	257,104	414,974	240,722	13,564	1,325	35.9
BROCKTON, . . .	56,878	23,008	17,882	40,890	15,425	531	32	27.1
Brookline, . . .	27,792	11,615	7,587	19,202	8,345	221	24	30.0
CAMBRIDGE, . . .	104,839	25,615	39,794	65,409	34,608	4,707	115	33.0
CHELSEA, . . .	32,452	6,969	11,460	18,429	13,748	242	33	42.4
CHICOOPEE, . . .	25,401	4,626	10,726	15,352	10,036	7	6	39.5
Clinton, . . .	13,075	2,497	5,762	8,259	4,798	12	6	36.7
EVERETT, . . .	33,484	11,048	12,017	23,065	9,607	795	17	28.7
FALL RIVER, . . .	119,295	15,858	52,125	67,983	50,874	355	83	42.6
FITCHBURG, . . .	37,826	9,745	14,415	24,160	13,611	42	13	36.0
Framingham, . . .	12,948	5,531	4,182	9,713	3,156	69	10	24.4
Gardner, . . .	14,699	4,277	5,070	9,347	5,312	34	6	36.1
GLoucester, . . .	24,398	8,206	8,675	16,881	7,484	12	21	30.7
Greenfield, . . .	10,427	5,568	2,877	8,445	1,918	61	3	18.4
HAVERHILL, . . .	44,115	19,472	13,061	32,533	11,153	397	32	25.3
HOLYoke, . . .	57,730	9,141	25,286	34,427	23,238	45	20	40.3
Hyde Park, . . .	15,507	5,158	5,804	10,962	4,442	87	16	28.6
LAWRENCE, . . .	85,892	11,699	32,553	44,252	41,319	265	56	48.1
Leominster, . . .	17,580	7,063	5,546	12,609	4,875	91	5	27.7
LOWELL, . . .	106,294	20,703	41,942	62,645	43,457	133	59	40.9
LYNN, . . .	89,336	33,180	27,994	61,174	27,344	700	118	30.6
MALDEN, . . .	44,404	14,618	15,849	30,467	13,430	486	21	30.2
MARLBOROUGH, . . .	14,579	5,279	5,924	11,203	3,344	26	6	22.9
MEDFORD, . . .	23,150	10,187	7,391	17,578	5,126	431	15	22.1
MELROSE, . . .	15,715	8,237	4,294	12,501	3,091	110	13	19.7
Methuen, . . .	11,448	2,830	4,106	6,936	4,501	11	—	39.3
Milford, . . .	13,055	3,741	4,953	8,694	4,331	28	2	33.2
NEW BEDFORD, . . .	96,652	18,738	32,336	51,074	42,625	2,885	68	44.1
NEWBURYPORT, . . .	14,949	7,688	4,154	11,842	3,007	98	2	20.1
Newton, . . .	39,806	16,282	11,830	28,112	11,191	467	36	28.1
NORTH ADAMS, . . .	22,019	7,293	8,588	15,881	6,046	88	4	27.5
NORTHAMPTON, . . .	19,431	7,556	6,614	14,470	4,880	75	6	25.1
Peabody, . . .	15,721	4,884	5,469	10,353	5,341	21	6	34.0
Plymouth, . . .	12,141	4,806	3,466	8,272	3,722	145	2	30.7
PITTSFIELD, . . .	32,121	13,778	11,243	25,021	6,744	320	36	21.0
QUINCY, . . .	32,642	9,289	12,404	21,693	10,875	45	29	33.3
Revere, . . .	18,219	5,334	7,508	12,842	5,331	33	13	29.3
SALEM, . . .	43,697	13,504	16,453	29,957	13,539	163	38	31.0
SOMERVILLE, . . .	77,236	29,573	26,632	56,205	20,751	217	63	26.9
Southbridge, . . .	12,592	2,876	5,379	8,255	4,315	17	5	34.3
SPRINGFIELD, . . .	88,026	35,732	28,656	64,388	22,999	1,475	64	25.9
TAUNTON, . . .	34,259	11,930	12,246	24,176	9,779	297	7	28.5
Wakefield, . . .	11,404	4,434	3,809	8,243	3,128	31	2	27.4
WALTHAM, . . .	27,834	10,313	9,747	20,090	7,683	62	29	27.6
Watertown, . . .	12,875	4,067	4,702	8,769	4,057	44	5	31.5
Webster, . . .	11,509	2,140	5,238	7,378	4,096	16	19	35.6
Westfield, . . .	16,044	6,449	5,147	11,596	4,401	40	7	27.4
Weymouth, . . .	12,805	6,773	3,779	10,552	2,312	26	5	17.9
Winthrop, . . .	10,132	4,947	3,040	7,987	2,093	47	5	20.7
WOBURN, . . .	15,308	4,714	6,308	11,022	4,039	242	5	26.4
WORCESTER, . . .	145,986	41,421	54,751	96,172	48,492	1,241	81	33.2

¹ Principally native-born.

² "All others" includes Indians, Chinese, and Japanese; of the Indians nearly all were native-born and of the Chinese and Japanese, nearly all were foreign-born.

Immigrant Population Statistics — 1910.

TABLE 23.—Number and Percentage of White Persons of Foreign Birth or Foreign Parentage in 1910, in Cities Having a Population of 100,000 or Over: By Countries of Birth or of Parent Nativitv.

Boston.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN WHICH BORN, OR, IF NATIVE, IN WHICH PARENTS WERE BORN.	WHITE POPULATION OF FOREIGN BIRTH OR FOREIGN PARENTAGE — 1910						Foreign-born White Population, 1900	
	TOTAL		FOREIGN BORN		NATIVE			
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages	Both Parents Foreign-born	One Parent Foreign-born		
All Countries.	¹ 497,826	100.0	240,722	100.0	195,422	61,682	194,953	
Atlantic Islands,	355	0.1	155	0.1	122	78	210	
Austria,	3,742	0.8	2,413	1.0	1,114	215	1,269	
Belgium,	875	0.2	682	0.3	140	53	221	
Canada — French,	5,997	1.2	3,098	1.3	1,686	1,213	2,895	
Canada — Other,	83,406	16.8	47,097	19.6	17,488	18,821	46,656	
Denmark,	1,577	0.3	1,031	0.4	334	212	675	
England,	26,125	5.2	13,601	5.7	5,304	7,160	13,163	
Finland,	644	0.1	455	0.2	178	11	221	
France,	1,938	0.4	1,073	0.4	364	501	1,000	
Germany,	23,031	4.6	8,700	3.6	10,480	3,851	10,738	
Greece,	1,668	0.3	1,497	0.6	143	28	281	
Holland,	883	0.2	486	0.2	295	102	391	
Hungary,	734	0.1	426	0.2	238	70	330	
Ireland,	177,631	35.7	66,038	27.4	88,099	23,494	70,142	
Italy,	49,753	10.0	31,380	13.0	17,311	1,062	13,738	
Newfoundland,	876	0.2	463	0.2	261	152	2	
Norway,	2,738	0.5	1,914	0.8	645	179	1,145	
Portugal,	2,417	0.5	1,225	0.5	967	225	878	
Roumania,	493	0.1	373	0.2	114	6	68	
Russia,	64,238	12.9	41,891	17.4	21,328	1,019	18,370	
Scotland,	9,207	1.8	5,062	2.1	2,246	1,899	4,469	
Sweden,	11,256	2.3	7,122	3.0	3,554	580	5,541	
Switzerland,	706	0.1	415	0.2	147	144	400	
Turkey in Asia,	2,709	0.5	2,088	0.9	555	36	600	
Turkey in Europe,	753	0.2	623	0.3	121	9	306	
Wales,	621	0.1	315	0.1	70	236	306	
All others,	³ 23,453	4.7	1,099	0.5	³ 22,028	326	1,246	

Cambridge.

All Countries.	74,402	100.0	34,608	100.0	29,478	10,316	29,924
Atlantic Islands,	25	4 —	16	4 —	8	1	57
Austria,	240	0.3	156	0.5	60	24	93
Belgium,	35	4 —	22	0.1	8	5	16
Canada — French,	3,297	4.4	1,445	4.2	1,265	587	1,480
Canada — Other,	15,428	20.7	8,447	24.4	3,391	3,590	9,268
Denmark,	155	0.2	89	0.3	40	26	129
England,	4,033	5.4	1,954	5.6	918	1,161	1,937
Finland,	106	0.1	72	0.2	30	4	36
France,	239	0.3	130	0.4	31	78	91
Germany,	1,817	2.4	728	2.1	756	333	857
Greece,	110	0.1	102	0.3	4	4	6
Holland,	46	0.1	18	0.1	15	13	20
Hungary,	154	0.2	102	0.3	48	4	19
Ireland,	28,907	38.9	10,636	30.7	14,743	3,528	11,233
Italy,	2,359	3.2	1,546	4.5	753	60	277
Newfoundland,	9	4 —	11	4 —	6	2	2
Norway,	392	0.5	244	0.7	113	35	226
Portugal,	3,075	4.1	1,857	5.4	1,095	123	698
Roumania,	73	0.1	64	0.2	7	2	1
Russia,	5,195	7.0	3,663	10.6	1,454	78	704
Scotland,	1,598	2.1	809	2.3	391	398	799
Sweden,	2,955	4.0	1,797	5.2	1,026	132	1,584
Switzerland,	56	0.1	34	0.1	6	16	35
Turkey in Asia,	447	0.6	364	1.1	82	1	100
Turkey in Europe,	53	0.1	50	0.1	3	—	59
Wales,	133	0.2	53	0.2	20	60	59
All others,	³ 3,455	4.6	199	0.6	³ 3,205	51	199

¹ The white population of Boston of foreign birth or foreign parentage in 1910 constituted 74.2 per cent of the total population of the city.

² Included with Canada.

³ Includes native whites whose parents were born in different countries: for example, one parent in Ireland and the other in Scotland.

⁴ Less than one-tenth of one per cent.

Immigrant Population Statistics — 1910.

TABLE 23.—Number and Percentage of White Persons of Foreign Birth or Foreign Parentage in 1910, in Cities Having a Population of 100,000 or Over: By Countries of Birth or of Parent Nativity — Continued.

Fall River.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN WHICH BORN, OR, IF NATIVE, IN WHICH PARENTS WERE BORN.	WHITE POPULATION OF FOREIGN BIRTH OR FOREIGN PARENTAGE — 1910						Foreign-born White Population, 1900	
	TOTAL		FOREIGN BORN		NATIVE			
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages	Both Parents Foreign-born	One Parent Foreign-born		
All Countries.	102,999	100.0	50,874	100.0	40,372	11,752	49,961	
Atlantic Islands,	1,204	1.3	956	1.9	340	8	1,094	
Austria,	3,953	3.8	2,614	5.1	1,329	10	405	
Belgium,	23	—	16	—	7	—	10	
Canada — French,	32,033	31.1	15,277	30.0	13,567	3,189	20,172	
Canada — Other,	1,929	1.9	961	1.9	341	627	2,329	
Denmark,	83	0.1	40	0.1	25	18	47	
England,	22,598	21.9	10,995	21.6	7,191	4,412	12,268	
Finland,	60	0.1	39	0.1	21	—	15	
France,	171	0.2	144	0.3	22	5	79	
Germany,	533	0.5	234	0.5	202	97	248	
Greece,	138	0.1	130	0.3	6	2	13	
Holland,	6	—	3	—	—	3	—	
Hungary,	6	—	3	—	1	2	4	
Ireland,	15,104	14.7	5,194	10.2	7,310	2,600	7,316	
Italy,	1,624	1.6	1,025	2.0	576	23	280	
Newfoundland,	12	—	6	—	1	5	—	
Norway,	69	0.1	47	0.1	11	11	26	
Portugal,	13,334	12.9	9,365	18.4	3,765	204	2,805	
Roumania,	52	0.1	34	0.1	18	—	5	
Russia,	3,467	3.4	2,143	4.2	1,255	39	1,286	
Scotland,	1,732	1.7	863	1.7	504	365	1,045	
Sweden,	171	0.2	102	0.2	43	26	104	
Switzerland,	19	—	10	—	1	8	6	
Turkey in Asia,	351	0.3	320	0.6	31	—	—	
Turkey in Europe,	189	0.2	164	0.3	25	—	35	
Wales,	227	0.2	96	0.2	51	80	102	
All others,	3,811	3.7	93	0.2	3,700	18	267	

Lowell.

All Countries.	85,399	100.0	43,457	100.0	31,702	10,240	40,915
Atlantic Islands,	55	0.1	39	0.1	15	1	168
Austria,	2,806	3.3	1,948	4.5	849	9	511
Belgium,	180	0.2	174	0.4	3	3	16
Canada — French,	23,208	27.2	12,291	28.3	8,517	2,400	14,674
Canada — Other,	7,423	8.7	4,049	9.3	1,332	2,042	4,483
Denmark,	56	0.1	36	0.1	6	14	14
England,	8,264	9.7	4,568	10.5	2,034	1,642	4,446
Finland,	66	0.1	46	0.1	20	—	2
France,	170	0.2	100	0.2	40	30	67
Germany,	500	0.6	205	0.5	189	106	165
Greece,	4,113	4.8	3,782	8.7	322	9	1,203
Holland,	19	—	9	—	5	5	12
Hungary,	33	—	24	0.1	8	1	13
Ireland,	26,164	30.6	9,983	23.0	12,800	3,381	12,147
Italy,	417	0.5	259	0.6	133	25	57
Newfoundland,	6	—	5	—	—	1	—
Norway,	163	0.2	98	0.2	43	22	71
Portugal,	2,095	2.5	1,449	3.3	595	51	314
Roumania,	21	—	16	—	5	—	—
Russia,	2,592	3.0	1,840	4.2	733	19	543
Scotland,	2,098	2.5	1,139	2.6	584	375	1,099
Sweden,	1,126	1.3	638	1.5	417	71	599
Switzerland,	6	—	4	—	2	—	7
Turkey in Asia,	661	0.8	546	1.3	115	—	—
Turkey in Europe,	99	0.1	91	0.2	8	—	84
Wales,	67	0.1	44	0.1	9	14	48
All others,	2,991	3.5	74	0.2	2,898	19	172

¹ Less than one-tenth of one per cent.² Included with Canada.

³ Includes native whites whose parents were born in different foreign countries: for example, one parent in Ireland and the other in Scotland.

Immigrant Population Statistics — 1910.

TABLE 23.—Number and Percentage of White Persons of Foreign Birth or Foreign Parentage in 1910, in Cities Having a Population of 100,000 or Over: By Countries of Birth or of Parent Nativity—Concluded.

Worcester.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN WHICH BORN, OR, IF NATIVE, IN WHICH PARENTS WERE BORN.	WHITE POPULATION OF FOREIGN BIRTH OR FOREIGN PARENTAGE — 1910					Foreign-born White Population, 1900	
	TOTAL		FOREIGN BORN		NATIVE		
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages	Both Parents Foreign-born	One Parent Foreign-born	
All Countries.	103,243	100.0	48,492	100.0	41,699	13,052	37,528
Atlantic Islands,	17	1 —	9	1 —	—	8	11
Austria,	507	0.5	362	0.7	122	23	147
Belgium,	33	1 —	17	1 —	2	14	20
Canada — French,	14,259	13.8	5,010	10.3	5,725	3,524	5,203
Canada — Other,	6,314	6.1	3,377	7.0	979	1,055	3,154
Denmark,	377	0.4	205	0.4	151	21	153
England,	6,221	6.0	3,113	6.4	1,548	1,500	2,613
Finland,	2,218	2.1	1,452	3.0	754	12	1,143
France,	218	0.2	123	0.3	36	59	88
Germany,	1,574	1.5	550	1.2	723	271	656
Greece,	83	0.1	83	0.2	—	—	13
Holland,	42	1 —	16	1 —	7	19	8
Hungary,	41	1 —	20	1 —	12	9	4
Ireland,	31,468	30.5	10,535	21.7	16,534	4,399	11,620
Italy,	4,264	4.1	2,889	6.0	1,298	77	595
Newfoundland,	11	1 —	7	1 —	—	4	2 —
Norway,	536	0.5	358	0.7	154	24	269
Portugal,	24	1 —	8	1 —	8	8	2
Roumania,	59	0.1	44	0.1	15	—	15
Russia,	13,015	12.6	8,767	18.1	4,099	149	2,521
Scotland,	1,729	1.7	870	1.8	492	367	714
Sweden,	14,347	13.9	8,036	16.6	5,855	453	7,540
Switzerland,	31	1 —	23	1 —	6	2	21
Turkey in Asia,	2,705	2.6	2,056	4.2	625	21	614
Turkey in Europe,	444	0.4	413	0.9	29	2	
Wales,	92	0.1	29	0.1	29	34	
All others,	2,614	2.5	90	0.2	2,490	34	364

¹ Less than one-tenth of one per cent.

² Included with Canada.

³ Includes native whites whose parents were born in different foreign countries: for example, one parent in Ireland and the other in Scotland.

Immigrant Population Statistics — 1910.

TABLE 24.—White Population of Foreign Birth or Foreign Parentage in Specified Cities in Massachusetts in 1910.¹

FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN WHICH BORN, OR, IF NATIVE, IN WHICH PARENTS WERE BORN.	Brock- ton	Haver- hill	Holyoke	Law- rence	Lynn	New Bedford	Som- erville	Spring- field
Total Population.	56,878	44,115	57,730	85,892	89,336	96,652	77,236	88,926
Foreign-Born White.	15,425	11,153	23,233	41,319	27,344	42,625	20,751	22,999
Atlantic Islands, . . .	8	4	—	6	8	6,467	88	—
Austria, . . .	43	313	2,396	1,450	264	1,837	143	1,357
Belgium, . . .	4	3	30	314	4	89	8	10
Canada — French, . . .	917	2,568	8,035	7,698	2,369	12,241	557	3,078
Canada — Other, . . .	2,662	1,873	552	1,800	7,511	933	7,493	1,453
Denmark, . . .	49	41	42	11	66	41	81	39
England, . . .	1,026	599	1,365	5,659	1,920	9,410	1,538	1,433
Finland, . . .	49	1	3	36	49	8	20	112
France, . . .	23	15	391	788	74	333	63	83
Germany, . . .	110	106	1,565	2,301	350	777	412	975
Greece, . . .	149	442	181	171	958	172	75	213
Hungary, . . .	14	14	80	28	25	13	25	32
Ireland, . . .	2,891	1,895	5,246	5,943	5,153	2,583	5,320	5,679
Italy, . . .	956	1,063	368	6,693	1,354	666	1,777	2,915
Newfoundland, . . .	7	—	2	5	126	20	102	9
Norway, . . .	85	21	10	8	157	73	143	61
Portugal, . . .	40	5	—	389	29	3,834	335	11
Roumania, . . .	20	13	5	34	14	4	13	33
Russia, . . .	3,178	1,574	1,684	4,366	3,880	1,707	794	2,916
Scotland, . . .	245	174	1,024	1,336	661	590	704	901
Sweden, . . .	2,608	64	95	121	1,399	279	710	1,076
Switzerland, . . .	8	6	23	7	25	36	16	73
Turkey in Asia, . . .	122	189	34	1,986	610	157	157	351
Turkey in Europe, . . .	86	135	59	91	213	197	4	86
Wales, . . .	31	10	14	26	24	32	31	24
Other foreign countries, . . .	64	25	34	52	101	126	112	79
Native White: Both pa- rents born in —	12,640	8,945	19,311	25,472	18,829	25,111	18,183	20,352
Austria, . . .	19	104	1,089	508	93	963	71	512
Canada — French, . . .	1,157	2,365	5,781	4,996	1,655	7,581	472	2,817
Canada — Other, . . .	955	657	274	454	2,491	288	2,980	541
Denmark, . . .	5	8	11	2	18	14	47	23
England, . . .	491	334	515	2,455	859	3,555	818	841
France, . . .	12	4	72	68	26	51	22	54
Germany, . . .	149	94	1,466	1,995	400	491	562	1,177
Ireland, . . .	4,784	2,992	6,981	8,279	7,741	2,915	7,660	8,330
Italy, . . .	545	654	154	1,657	688	228	1,140	1,599
Norway, . . .	22	9	7	1	37	23	66	7
Russia, . . .	1,358	767	732	1,650	1,437	1,189	530	1,459
Scotland, . . .	107	105	617	630	310	270	398	498
Sweden, . . .	1,940	15	59	75	745	136	496	612
All others of foreign par- entage, ² . . .	1,096	837	1,553	2,702	2,329	7,407	2,921	1,882

¹ For cities in Massachusetts having population of over 100,000 see Table 23.² Includes native whites having both parents born in countries other than specified, also those having both parents of foreign birth but born in different countries.

PART II.

LABOR BIBLIOGRAPHY.

1912.



LABOR BIBLIOGRAPHY, 1912.

INTRODUCTION.

This bibliography, which is a list of the important titles, either books or in periodicals, which have appeared in the calendar year 1912 on the subject of labor in its broad aspect, is divided into the following 30 sections:

1. Administration of Labor Laws.
2. Child Labor.
3. Collective Agreements.
4. Conciliation and Arbitration.
5. Conventions and Conferences.
6. Cost of Living and Prices.
7. Court Decisions.
8. Credit Unions and Co-operation.
9. Diseases of Occupations and Industrial Hygiene.
10. Employers' Association.
11. Home Work.
12. Housing.
13. Immigration.
14. Injunctions.
15. Injuries.
16. Labor Organizations.
17. Legislation.
18. Manufactures.
19. Pensions and Retirement Systems.
20. Profit Sharing.
21. Savings Banks.
22. Scientific Management.
23. Social Insurance.
24. Strikes, Lockouts, and Boycotts.
25. Unemployment.
26. Wages and Hours of Labor.
27. Welfare Work.
28. Woman Labor.
29. Workmen's Compensation and Employers' Liability.
30. Miscellaneous.

1. ADMINISTRATION OF LABOR LAWS.

Administration of Labor Laws. In *American Labor Legislation Review*. v. 2. no. 3. p. 445-455. Oct. 1912.

Analysis of inspection laws passed in the United States in 1912.

ALABAMA Factory Inspector. *Annual Report, 1912.* Montgomery. 1912. 144 p.

BELGIUM. *Rapports Annuels de l'Inspection du Travail, 1911.* Bruxelles. Office du Travail. 1912. 560 p.

17th annual report on labor and factory inspection in Belgium, issued by the bureau of labor in the Belgian department of industry and labor.

CALIFORNIA. Inspection of Factories and Stores. In *Biennial Report of Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1911-1912.* Sacramento. 1912. p. 459-519.

— *Special Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for Six Months Ending Dec. 31, 1911.* Sacramento. 1912. 13 p.

Report of the work of the bureau in the enforcement of labor laws. This report contains the interesting information that the bureau has departed from its former practice of simply gathering and compiling statistics and has undertaken the enforcement of all laws affecting labor, even though no provision has been made by law for this work.

CANADA. Special Regulations for the Protection of Workmen Employed in Railway Construction — Inspection Duties of Fair Wages Officer. In *Canadian Labour Gazette*. v. 13. p. 40-42. Ottawa. July 1912.

Compensation Administration in the State of Washington. By John H. WALLACE. In *Human Engineering*. v. 2. no. 2. p. 121-128. Aug. 1912.

Efficient Enforcement of Labor Laws. In *American Labor Legislation Review*. v. 2. no. 4. p. 595-603. Dec. 1912.

Enforcement of Labor Laws. By Josephine GOLDMARK. In her *Fatigue and Efficiency*. New York. 1912. p. 211-241.

Factory Inspection, Accident Prevention, and Sanitation. By Henry R. SEAGER. In *Preliminary Report of the New York Factory Investigating Commission*. Albany. 1912. v. 1. p. 754-757.

GREAT BRITAIN. Factories and Workshops. *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector, 1911.* London. Wyman & Sons. 1912. xv, 335 p. [Cd. 6239.]

ILLINOIS. *Suggestions in Regard to the Operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act.* Springfield. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 1912.

International Association for Labor Legislation. Publication No. 8. *Report of 7th General Meeting of the Committee of the International Association*, held at Zurich, Sept. 10-12, 1912. London. P. S. King & Son. 1912. 188, 20 p.

International Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor, Factory Inspection and Industrial Commissioners. *Proceedings of the 28th Annual Convention*, held at Washington, D. C., May 28-30, 1912. Washington. 1912. 116 p.

ITALY. *Bollettino dell'Ispettorato.* v. 3. Nos. 1-12. Roma. Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio, Ufficio del Lavoro. 1912.

Bulletin of factory and labor inspection issued by the bureau of labor in the department of agriculture, industry and commerce of Italy.

Labor Laws and Factory Conditions. By Hugh S. HANNA. V. 19 of *Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States.* Senate doc. no. 645. 61st cong. 2d sess. Washington. Bureau of Labor. 1912. 1125 p.

The results of an investigation into the administration and operation of laws on the employment of women and children in 17 states. The report gives an analysis of the scope and enforcement of labor laws, by states and subjects covered; statistical tables of data regarding the conditions of employment in factories and work shops; and the text of laws regulating women and child labor and the inspection of factories and work shops, by states.

MARYLAND Child Labor Law. In *20th Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics and Information, 1911.* Baltimore. 1912. p. 12-67.

Summary of conditions in Maryland with tabular presentation of child labor statistics for industries inspected in Baltimore and the counties of Maryland.

— *Factory Inspection.* In *20th Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics and Information, 1911.* Baltimore. 1912. p. 68-147.

MASSACHUSETTS. Board of Retirement. *1st Report, Boston.* Jan. 1913. 21 p.

Contains the report of the work of the board for the year 1912, under chap. 532 of the acts

of 1911 and its amendments, by which a retirement system was established for employees of the commonwealth. The text of the act as amended in 1912 is appended to the report.

— Boiler Inspection. Annual Report, 1912. In *Report of Massachusetts District Police for the Year Ending Oct. 31, 1912*. Boston. p. 133-223.

The report contains the rules formulated by the board of boiler rules and recommendations made by the board, reports of inspectors of boilers, and a tabular summary of inspections.

— *Report of Commission on Compensation for Industrial Accidents*. July 1, 1912. Boston. 1912. 322 p.

Contains report on work of the commission, text of the Massachusetts law and commentary on the law, brief description of laws in 26 foreign countries and 15 American states, the federal law and proposed federal compensation act, consideration of the constitutionality of a compulsory law for Massachusetts, statistics of accidents in Massachusetts, opinion of the justices of the supreme judicial court on constitutionality of Massachusetts act, full text of laws of American states, specimen report blanks.

— *Report of Commission on Minimum Wage Boards*. Jan. 1912. Boston. 1912. 326 p.

Contains report of the temporary commission authorized by the legislature of 1911 "to study the matter of wages of women and minors, and to report on the advisability of establishing a board or boards to which shall be referred inquiries as to the need and feasibility of fixing minimum rates of wages for women and minors in any industry"; draft of bill for carrying the recommendations of the commission into effect; and a study of earnings, hours of labor, unemployment, cost of living, and other economic conditions of women and minors in the low-paid industries — candy factories, retail stores, and laundries.

— Building and Factory Inspection. Annual Report, 1912. In *Report of Massachusetts District Police for the Year Ending Oct. 31, 1912*. Boston. p. 76-132.

— Industrial Accident Board:

1st Report. Workmen's Compensation Act. Boston. 1912. 41 p.

Contains text of laws of 1911 and 1912 with introductory statement, rules, forms and annotations. A reprint edition was issued by the Massachusetts employees insurance association.

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— State Inspectors of Health. *5th Annual Report, 1911*. Boston. State Board of Health. 1912. 84 p.

In addition to matter relating to public health in general, the report includes the following special studies of industrial hygiene: sanitation of factories and workshops (7 p.); sanitary conditions in laundries (10 p.); attitude of Massachusetts manufacturers toward the health of their employees (5 p.); statistics relative to the health inspection of factories and workshops (9 p.); and hygiene of tenement workrooms (4 p.). The report of the state inspectors is also incorporated in the 43d annual report of the state board of health of Massachusetts, 1911.

MICHIGAN. Inspection of Factories, Workshops, Hotels, and Stores. In *29th Annual Report of Department of Labor*. Lansing. 1912. p. 23-35, 45-405.

Reports of inspectors, summary of inspections, tabular presentation of statistics of inspection, and copies of orders issued.

MISSOURI. Factory Inspection. In *34th Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics*. Jefferson City. 1912. p. 178-189.

Need for More Women Factory Inspectors. In *Women's Industrial News*. v. 16, new series. p. 73-81. London. Oct. 1912.

NETHERLANDS. *Statistiek van de Berechting der Overtredingen van de Arbeids- en Veiligheidswetten in 1911*. s'Gravenhage. Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. 1912. 39 p.

Results of prosecutions for violation of the labor law and the laws providing for the safety of workmen. Statistics issued by the central statistical bureau of the Netherlands.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. Factory Inspection. In *9th Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor, 1912*. Concord. 1912. pt. 2. p. 83-90.

NEW SOUTH WALES. *Report on the Working of the Factories and Shops Act; Minimum Wage Act; Early Closing Acts; Shearers' Accommodation Act, etc. etc., During the Year 1911*. Sydney. Department of Labour and Industry. 1912. iv, 61 p.

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- Bureau of Mercantile Inspection. Report, 1910. In *Annual Reports of Department Bureaus, 1910*. Albany. Department of Labor. 1912. v. 1. p. 387-445.
- Factory Investigating Commission. *Preliminary Report*. Albany. 1912. 3 v. 837, xxvi, 1986 p.
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- NOVA SCOTIA. Factories Inspector. *4th Annual Report, 1911*. Halifax. Department of Public Works and Mines. 1912. 61 p.
- OKLAHOMA. Factory Inspection. In *4th Annual Report of the Department of Labor, 1910-1911*. Guthrie. [1912.] p. 60-97.
- Tabular presentation of factory inspection statistics for year ending June 30, 1911. The report includes inspection of bakeries.
- ONTARIO. Inspectors of Factories. *24th Annual Report, 1911*. Toronto. Ontario Department of Agriculture. 1912. 103 p.
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- RHODE ISLAND. Inspections of Factories, Mercantile Establishments, Workshops, Bakeries, etc., 1911. *18th Annual Report*. Providence. 1912. 215 p.
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- UNITED STATES. Compensation to Injured Government Employees. *Regulations Issued by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor Governing the Operation of the Government Compensation Act for Employees Injured in the Service of the United States*. (Acts of 1908, 1911, and 1912.) Washington. 1912. 11 p.
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- No. 3. July 20, 1912. Workmen's Compensation. p. 65-136. First annual report of the administration of the workmen's compensation law, July 1, 1911, to June 30, 1912.
- No. 3a. July 20, 1912. Industrial Accidents. p. 137-146. Statistics for the first 10 months of the operation of the Wisconsin law.
- No. 4. August 20, 1912. The Industrial Commission and its Predecessors, 1883-1912. p. 147-234.
- No. 4a. August 20, 1912. Apprenticeship Law. p. 235-246.
- No. 5. Oct. 20, 1912. Compulsory School Attendance. p. 247-264.

2. CHILD LABOR.

The A. F. of L.'s Successful Fight for Child Labor Laws. By Samuel GOMPERS. In *American Federationist*. v. 19. p. 209-214, 707-711. Mar. and Sept. 1912.

ALABAMA Factory Inspector. *Annual Report, 1912*. Montgomery. 1912. 144 p.

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A statement of the duty of the Industrial Commission in enforcing the apprenticeship law, the text of the law and annotations, and a copy of the form of apprenticeship contract approved by the commission.

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Bureau of Child Welfare. By Alfred E. SHIPLEY. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1761, 1762. Feb. 17, 1912.

Outline of a type of municipal child welfare bureau suggested as a means of solving the problems of child welfare agencies.

Child in the City. By Sophonisba P. BRECK-INRIDGE. Chicago. School of Civics and Philanthropy. 1912.

Papers presented at the conferences held during the Chicago child welfare exhibit.

Child Labor. In *American Labor Legislation Review*. v. 2. p. 456-464. Oct. 1912.

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Child Labor and Education. By Owen R. LOVEJOY. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1780-1784. Feb. 17, 1912.

Child Labor and Education. *Child Labor Bulletin*. v. 1. no. 1. New York. National Child Labor Committee. June 1912. (6), 223 p.

Papers and proceedings of the 8th annual conference of the national child labor committee.

Child Labor in California. In *Biennial Report of California Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1911-1912*. Sacramento. 1912. p. 21-28, 521-529.

A report of the work of the California bureau in the enforcement of child labor laws, with

statistics of age and schooling certificates and juvenile court permits issued and of minors employed in stores and factories.

Child Labor in City Streets. By Edward N. CLOPPER. New York. Macmillan. 1912. ix, 280 p.

"Child labor in the city streets should not only be regulated but should be absolutely forbidden." The book contains copious extracts from reports of investigations and from opinions of child labor experts. Bibliography.

Child Labor in Massachusetts. *Annual Report of the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee for 1912*. Boston. Jan. 1, 1913. 31 p.

Contains reports on child labor in tenement industries, child labor at night in Massachusetts, uniformity in child labor legislation, and child labor laws of Massachusetts, 1912.

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Child Labor Law of Maryland. In *20th Annual Report of Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information, 1911*. Baltimore. 1912. p. 12-67.

Summary of conditions in Maryland with tabular presentation of child labor statistics for industries inspected in Baltimore and the counties of Maryland.

Child Labor Law of Wisconsin. *Bulletin of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin*. v. 1. no. 2. Madison. June 20, 1912. p. 45-64.

Essential points of the law, opinions of courts and experts on child labor legislation, and brief bibliography.

Child Labor Laws in All States. *Child Labor Bulletin*. v. 1. no. 2. New York. National Child Labor Committee. Aug. 1912. (6), 124 p.

Children's Bureau. By Julia C. LATHROP. In *American Journal of Sociology*. v. 18. p. 318-330. Nov. 1912.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *Establishment of the Bureau.* Washington. Department of Commerce and Labor. 1912. 5 p.

The bulletin contains a copy of the act establishing the bureau and a brief outline for the scope of the bureau and plans for its immediate work.

Compulsory School Attendance. *Bulletin of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin.* v. 1. no. 5. p. 247-264. Madison. Oct. 20, 1912.

A statement of the essential points of the Wisconsin law with comment and explanation and opinions of the courts in various states relative to compulsory education laws.

Condition of Women and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, Report on. Senate doc. no. 645. 61st cong. 2d sess. Washington. Bureau of Labor. 1910-1912.

v. 1. Cotton Textile Industry. 1910. 1044 p.

v. 2. Men's Ready Made Clothing. 1911. 878 p.

v. 3. Glass Industry. 1911. 970 p.

v. 4. The Silk Industry. 1911. 592 p.

v. 5. Wage-Earning Women in Stores and Factories. 1910. 384 p.

v. 6. The Beginnings of Child Labor Legislation in Certain States: A Comparative Study. By Elizabeth L. OTEY. 1910. 225 p.

v. 7. Conditions under Which Children Leave School to Go to Work. 1910. 309 p.

v. 8. Juvenile Delinquency and Its Relation to Employment. 1911. 177 p.

v. 9. History of Women in Industry in the United States. By Helen L. SUMNER. 1910. 277 p.

v. 10. History of Women in Trade Unions. By John B. ANDREWS and W. D. P. BLISS. 1911. 236 p.

v. 11. Employment of Women in the Metal Trades. By Lucian W. CHANEY. 1911. 107 p.

v. 12. Employment of Women in Laundries. 1911. 121 p.

v. 13. Infant Mortality and Its Relation to the Employment of Mothers. By Edward Bunnell PHELPS and Charles H. VERRILL. 1912. 174 p.

v. 14. Causes of Death among Woman and Child Cotton-Mill Operatives. By Arthur R. PERRY. 1912. 430 p.

v. 15. Relation between Occupation and Criminality of Women. By Mary CONYNGTON. 1911. 119 p.

v. 16. Family Budgets of Typical Cotton-Mill Workers. By Wood F. and Daisy Worthington WORCESTER. 1911. 225 p.

v. 17. Hookworm Disease among Cotton-Mill Operatives. By Charles Wardell STILES. 1912. 45 p.

v. 18. Employment of Women and Children in Selected Industries. By Mary CONYNGTON. 1913. 531 p.

v. 19. Labor Laws and Factory Conditions. By Hugh S. HANNA. 1912. 1125 p.

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Réglementation du Travail des Femmes et des Enfants aux États-Unis. By A. CHABOSEAU. Paris. Giard et Brière. 1912. 206 p.

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3. COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS.

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Annual Report. Dec. 1912. 23 p.

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Bulletin no. 6. May 1912. A Year and a Half of the Joint Board. 8 p.

Lohnsystem und Löhne in der Brauindustrie. Tarifverträge. Eine Abhandlung über Moderne Lohnprobleme und Lohnpolitik. By Emil WOLFF. Berlin. Carl Heymanns Verlag. 1912. viii, 168 p.

A discussion of wages in the brewing industry. Rates of wages paid under various agreements and other conditions of labor are examined in detail in the second section of the book.

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MASSACHUSETTS. Collective Agreements between Employers and Labor Organizations, 1911. *Pt. 3 of the 42d Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor.* Boston. Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics. 1912. p. vi, 119-318.

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The text of regulations and special rules for dangerous and unhealthy industries, under the factory and workshops act.

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A discussion of the origin of the factory system and its relation to the modern democratic movement.

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NEW JERSEY. Fruit and Vegetable Canning Industry of New Jersey, Season of 1910. In *34th Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries, 1911.* Camden. 1912. p. 153-161.

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tion and average yearly earnings of labor. The figures for persons employed are given by sex but not by age periods.

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PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. Industrial Statistics, 1912. In *3d Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor.* Manila. 1912. p. 7-19, 30-81.

RHODE ISLAND. Selected Industries, 1909-1910. In *25th Annual Report of the Commissioner of Industrial Statistics, 1912.* Providence. Bureau of Industrial Statistics. 1912. p. 203-212.

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SOUTH CAROLINA. Factory Inspection and Manufacturing Statistics. *3d Annual Report of the Labor Division, Department of Agriculture, Commerce and Industries, 1911*. Columbia. 1912. 50 p.

Statistical presentation showing number of establishments, capital invested, value of product, wages, number of employees, and amount of employment, etc.

Story of Textiles; a Birds-Eye View of the History of the Beginning and Growth of the Industry by which Mankind is Clothed. By P. WALTON. Boston. J. S. Lawrence. 1912. 274 p.

UNITED STATES. Manufacturing and Mining Industries. In *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1911*. Washington. Department of Commerce and Labor. 1912. p. 179-231.

A tabular presentation of statistics of manufactures by industries for the year 1899, 1904, and 1909.

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WEST VIRGINIA. Statistics of Manufactures. In *11th Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor, 1911-1912*. Charleston. 1912. p. 13-95.

Tabular presentation showing, by industry, number employed Jan. 1, 1911, capital invested in grounds, buildings, and machinery, total value of product for 1911, number employed, amount of wages paid during the year, with per cent of increase or decrease in wage rates during 1911.

19. PENSION AND RETIREMENT SYSTEMS.

Administration of the Poor Law, the Unemployed Workmen Act, and the Old Age Pensions Act. *Pt. 1 of 41st Annual Report of the Local Government Board, Great Britain, 1911-1912.* London. 1912. lxxxvii, 242 p. [Cd. 6327.]

Afslönings- och Pensionsstatistik. Sveriges officiella Statistik. Stockholm. Statistiska Centralbyrå. 1912. viii, 213 p.

Statistics of wages and pensions in 1905 in Sweden.

American Brewery-Workers' Surprising Rejection of Their Proffered Workmen's Compensation and Old-Age Pensions. A Clean-Cut Case of "the Consciousness of Kind." By E. B. PHELPS. In *American Underwriter.* Apr. 1912. 16 p.

MASSACHUSETTS BOARD OF RETIREMENT. *1st Report.* Boston. Jan. 1913. 21 p.

Contains the report of the work of the board for the year 1912 in administering the retirement system for employees of the commonwealth under acts of 1911 and 1912.

Old Age and Invalid Pensions in Australia. In *British Board of Trade Labour Gazette.* v. 20. p. 130. London. Apr. 1912.

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Pension Plan for the Brewing Industry. By I. M. RUBINOW. In *Survey.* v. 29. p. 360-363. Dec. 21, 1912.

Retirement from the Classified Civil Service of Superannuated Employees. Report of the President's Commission on Economy and Efficiency. House doc. no. 732. 62d cong. 2d sess. Washington. Superintendent of Documents. 1912. 60, (550) p.

The volume includes as appendices the reports by Herbert D. Brown on the savings and annuity plan proposed for the retirement of superannuated civil-service employees (senate doc. no. 745, 61st cong. 3d sess.), civil service retirement in Great Britain and New Zealand (senate doc. no. 290, 61st cong. 2d sess.), and civil service retirement in New South Wales (senate doc. no. 420, 61st cong. 2d. sess.), together with the text of proposed legislation and the schedule used by the commission in gathering data for the report.

Workmen's Compensation and Old-Age Pensions in American Breweries. In *Canadian Labour Gazette.* v. 12. p. 883-886. Ottawa. Mar. 1912.

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20. PROFIT SHARING.

Comparative Study of Wage and Bonus Systems.

By Harrington EMERSON. New York.
The Emerson Company. [1912.] 27 p.

Copartnership in Industry; with Notes on over 200 British Copartnership and Profit-Sharing Schemes, 1829-1912. By C. CARPENTER. London. Copartnership Publishers, Ltd. [1912.]

Industrial Betterment Activities of the National Metal Trades Association. By Robert WUEST. In *Human Engineering*. v. 2. p. 132-142. Aug. 1912.

Same in *Annals of American Academy*, Nov. 1912. p. 74-85.

Participation aux Bénéfices. Exposé des Différentes Méthodes Adoptées Pouvant Servir de Guide Pratique pour L'Application du Régime. By Albert TROMBERT. Paris. Librairies Chaix et Alcan. 1912. xvi, 319 p.

A full account of the different methods of profit-sharing in various countries. Appendices give the actual methods of several industrial undertakings. There is a detailed list grouped under countries, and giving the dates when the methods of profit-sharing were adopted. Bibliography.

Premium and Bonus Systems of Payment. By David A. McCABE. In his *Standard Rate in American Trade Unions*. Baltimore. Johns Hopkins Press. 1912. p. 235-241.

Profit-Sharing and Labour Copartnership. By Theodore C. TAYLOR. In *Contemporary Review*. v. 101. p. 625-634. May 1912.

Profit-Sharing and Labour Co-Partnership in the United Kingdom. London. Board of Trade, Labour Department. 1912. (2), 160 p. [Cd. 6496.]

The report is divided into five sections: (1) scope of the inquiry; (2) profit-sharing and co-partnership in private firms and companies, general summary, analysis of schemes now in force, detailed account of schemes of various types, and opinions of employers as to results obtained; (3) profit-sharing and co-partnership in co-operative societies; (4) conversion of ordinary businesses into co-operative societies; (5) appendices: tables of cases in which profit-sharing now exists or has been abandoned, with causes of abandonment, amounts invested by employees, rates of bonus to wages, rules of various schemes, and a bibliography of English publications in the library of the labour department.

Profit-Sharing System in Great Britain. In *15th Abstract of Labour Statistics of the United Kingdom*. London. Wyman & Sons. 1912. p. 134-136.

Promising Venture in Industrial Partnership. By Robert F. FOERSTER. In *Annals of American Academy*. v. 44. Nov. 1912. p. 97-103.

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21. SAVINGS BANKS.

Bank Commissioner of Massachusetts. *Annual Report, 1912.* pt. 1. Boston. xl ix, 497, cxxv p.

Contains statistics and legislation relating to savings banks and institutions for savings, trust companies, and foreign banking corporations.

Caisse Nationale d'Épargne. Rapport sur les Opérations, 1911. Paris. Ministère des Travaux Publics, des Postes et des Télégraphes. 1912. 119 p.

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PART III.

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT

ON

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

1912.



THIRTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT

ON

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, 1912.

INTRODUCTION.

The results of the Bureau's investigations in the matter of strikes and lockouts during 1912 show a greater amount of unrest in the industries of Massachusetts than in any year since statistics of labor disputes have been collected, *i.e.*, since 1881. The number of strikers (48,007) was greater than during any year, the nearest approach to this number being in 1894 when 44,245 workers were on strike. The total number of employees thrown out of work, including strikers and non-strikers, was 94,553, the highest number recorded in any year, and the time lost as a result of strikes (2,313,466 working days) has been exceeded only in 1904, the year of the great textile strike at Fall River, when 25,000 cotton-mill operatives were out of work for over six months. On the hypothesis that the average working year is 300 days, the working time lost during the calendar year 1912 was equivalent to the labor of 7,711 workpeople for one year.

The strikes commencing in 1912 which involved the largest numbers of employees were: (1) The strike of textile workers at Lawrence against a reduction in weekly earnings which took effect upon the enforcement of the 54-hour law in January, 1912; (2) the strike of cotton-mill operatives at Lowell for an increase in wages above the advance already determined upon by the mills after the settlement of the strike at Lawrence; (3) the strike of weavers in the cotton mills at New Bedford in July for the abolition of the grading system; (4) the strike of longshoremen in Boston, in January, for an increase in wages; and (5) the strike of street railway employees in Boston, in June, for the right to organize. In the Lawrence strike about 21,000 workers were involved, causing a loss in working time of approximately 750,000 days. The approximate number of employees involved and the number of working days lost in the other strikes were: Lowell, cotton-mill operatives, 14,049 employees and 315,189 work-

ing days lost: New Bedford, weavers, 13,643 employees and 637,230 working days lost; Boston, longshoremen, 2,285 employees and 13,710 working days lost.

Of all the workpeople who struck during 1912, 36.5 per cent were in the cotton goods industry, 25.3 per cent were in the woolen and worsted goods industry, and 7.6 per cent were in the boot and shoe industry.

The principal causes of disputes beginning in 1912 were questions of wages and working conditions, the former involving 66.1 per cent of all the strikers and the latter 29.8 per cent. Strikes for increases in wages involved 22,664, or 47.2 per cent of all the strikers, while in strikes against reductions in wages there were 8,871, or 18.5 per cent of all the strikers concerned in the disputes of 1912.

Sixty-one per cent of the strikers were successful in gaining better conditions than existed before the strike, while 35.3 per cent were successful in obtaining *all* of their demands. The number of strikers who failed in securing any of their demands was somewhat less than in recent years (39.0 in 1912, 42.7 in 1911, 51.8 in 1910, and 45.1 in 1909).

Boston, Lawrence, Lowell, and New Bedford were the cities most affected by strikes. In Lawrence there were 23,898 employees involved and 764,337 working days lost; in Lowell, 16,292 employees were involved and 352,049 working days lost; in New Bedford, 14,122 employees were involved and 640,202 working days lost; in Boston, 10,672 employees were involved and 122,386 working days lost.

Of the 294 strikes in 1912 there were 66, or 22.4 per cent (20.3 in 1911), involving 22,268 strikers, in which the demands of the strikers were presented in writing before the cessation of work. In three strikes, involving 559 strikers, demands were presented in writing after the cessation of work. Of the 130 strikes ordered by labor organizations the demands were presented in writing before the cessation of work in 60, or 46.1 per cent (32.0 in 1911); and of the 162 strikes not ordered by labor organizations the demands were presented in writing in 6, or 3.7 per cent (5.4 in 1911). In 46 strikes, involving 5,366 strikers, written agreements were signed at the settlement of the strike.

A syllabus of the introductory portion of this report is given below, the statistical tables dealing with details being given on pages 41 to 95, definitions and explanation of terms on pages 96 to 98, explanation of scope and method on page 99, and specimens of the forms used in the collection of these statistics on pages 101 to 104:

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I.

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND PERSONS AFFECTED.

1. STATISTICS OF STRIKES FOR ALL INDUSTRIES.

There were 294 strikes lasting one day or more in the Commonwealth reported during the calendar year 1912 affecting 680 establishments. Involved in these strikes were 48,007 strikers and 46,546 other employees who were involuntarily thrown out of work as a result of the strike action of others, making a total of 94,553 employees affected by the labor disputes of the year. The approximate amount of working time lost as a result of the strikes which were in progress during the year amounted to 2,313,466 working days. As compared with the years prior to 1912 since statistics of strikes were first gathered in Massachusetts (1881), the number of strikes, strikers, and other employees thrown out of work in 1912 showed an increase.¹ The number of establishments involved in 1912 was greater than in any year since 1907, and the number of working days lost was greater than in any year since 1904, the year of the great textile strike at Fall River.

The number of strikers during the year 1912 was 48,007, as compared with 9,768 in 1911 and 44,245 in 1894, the year for which the largest number of strikes was recorded in Massachusetts prior to 1912. The average number of strikers in each establishment was 71 in 1912, 20 in 1911, and 150 in 1894. The cessation of work by the strikers forced out of employment other employees in the same establishments, who had no grievance and perhaps no desire to strike, to the number of 46,546 during 1912, as compared with 6,742 in 1911 and 15,534 in 1894.

A large proportion of the strikes which occurred during the year were small in size. Of the 294 strikes in 1912 there were 115, or 39.1 per cent (56.8 in 1911), in which less than 26 strikers were involved; 182, or 61.9 per cent (75.7 in 1911), in which less than 51 strikers were involved; 236, or 80.3 per cent (90.5 in 1911), in which less than 101 strikers were involved; and only 14, or 4.8 per cent (0.5 in 1911), in which more than

¹ In order to obtain a complete survey of the amount of unrest in the industries of the Commonwealth, in so far as this may be illustrated by strikes, it would be proper to add to these figures the data relating to those strikes which were of less than one day's duration and the protest strikes of the Industrial Workers of the World; i.e., 39 strikes, 54 establishments, 9,018 strikers, 4,979 other employees thrown out of work, and approximately 36,335 working days lost. These figures, when added to those given in the text above, show that there were actually 333 strikes, 734 establishments involved, 57,025 strikers, 51,525 other employees thrown out of work, and 2,349,801 working days lost.

500 strikers were involved. In six strikes there were more than 1,000 strikers, namely, the strikes of 1,036 cotton-mill operatives in Adams, 2,200 street railway employees in Boston, 2,285 longshoremen in Boston, 4,788 weavers in New Bedford, 5,909 cotton-mill operatives in Lowell, and 8,404 textile workers in Lawrence. In a consideration of the total number of persons affected by strikes during the year, including both strikers and employees thrown out of work, we find that in 99, or 33.7 per cent (51.4 in 1911) of all the strikes, there were less than 26 employees involved; in 160, or 54.4 per cent (68.9 in 1911) of the strikes, there were less than 51 employees involved; in 209, or 71.1 per cent (81.1 in 1911), there were less than 101 employees involved; in 29, or 9.9 per cent (1.8 in 1911), there were more than 500 employees involved; and in 10, or 3.4 per cent (0.5 in 1911), there were more than 1,000 employees involved. The strike of 8,404 textile workers in Lawrence threw 12,786 other textile workers out of work; the strike of 94 loomfixers in Clinton threw 2,043 other cotton-mill operatives out of work; the strike of 67 McKay stitchers in Lynn threw 1,162 other shoe workers out of work; the strike of 18 weavers in Webster threw 707 other cotton-mill operatives out of work; and the strike of 45 shoe cutters in Salem threw 500 other shoe workers out of work.

2. LOCKOUTS.

Of the 294 disputes which occurred during the year only two might be classified as lockouts. In these two lockouts there were two establishments affected and 123 employees were locked out, throwing 400 other employees out of work. The approximate amount of working time lost was 2,338 days.

3. LOCALITIES AFFECTED.

In Boston there were 54 strikes, or 18.4 per cent (25.2 in 1911) of all the strikes; 147 establishments, or 21.6 per cent (24.4 in 1911) of all the establishments affected; 9,059 strikers, or 18.9 per cent (20.7 in 1911) of the total number; and 122,386 working days lost, or 5.3 per cent (9.4 in 1911) of the time lost by all the disputes in the Commonwealth during the year. In Fall River there were 29 strikes (9 in 1911); in Lynn, 28 (35 in 1911); in Lawrence, 17 (6 in 1911); in Haverhill, 15 (4 in 1911).

The cities in which a large number of establishments were involved were: Boston, 147 (120 in 1911); Lynn, 75 (64 in 1911); Haverhill, 74 (21 in 1911); Fall River, 59 (11 in 1911); Worcester, 55 (31 in 1911); Lowell, 37 (35 in 1911); Lawrence, 35 (6 in 1911).

In a consideration of strikers the localities which showed the largest

numbers were: Lawrence, 10,143 (256 in 1911); Boston, 9,059 (2,019 in 1911); Lowell, 7,915 (336 in 1911); New Bedford, 5,126 (192 in 1911); Fall River, 2,771 (477 in 1911); Lynn, 1,797 (1,347 in 1911); Haverhill, 1,365 (304 in 1911).

The amount of working time lost by labor disputes in Lawrence was approximately 764,337 working days (5,511 in 1911). Other cities in which a large amount of time was lost were: New Bedford, 640,202 (1,683 in 1911); Lowell, 352,049 (4,750 in 1911); Boston, 122,386 (22,047 in 1911); Clinton, 108,876 (33 in 1911); Haverhill, 48,517 (9,288 in 1911); Lynn, 47,078 (66,376 in 1911).

4. PREVALENCE OF STRIKES BY INDUSTRIES.

The *cotton goods industry* was affected by strikes to a greater extent than any other industry in Massachusetts during 1912. In this industry there were 51 strikes, involving 93 establishments, in which 17,500 employees struck and 24,951 other employees were involuntarily thrown out of work, while the amount of working time lost was approximately 1,203,810 days. Expressed in percentages, 17.4 per cent of all the strikes, 13.7 per cent of all the establishments, 36.4 per cent of all the strikers, 53.6 per cent of all the other employees involuntarily thrown out of work, and 52.0 per cent of all the working time lost was in the cotton goods industry.

The city most affected by strikes in the cotton goods industry was Fall River. In this city there were 25 strikes (5 in 1911), or 49.0 per cent of all the strikes occurring in this industry; 50 establishments (5 in 1911), or 53.8 per cent of all the establishments affected; 2,636 strikers (382 in 1911), or 15.1 per cent of all the strikers involved; 1,530 other employees thrown out of work (none in 1911); and approximately 30,552 working days lost (913 in 1911). In Lowell there were five strikes in 11 establishments involving 7,204 strikers, or 41.2 per cent of all the strikers who ceased work in this industry; 8,364 other employees were thrown out of work; and 343,422 working days were lost. In New Bedford there were four strikes in 15 establishments involving 4,929 strikers, 8,995 other employees thrown out of work, and 639,356 working days lost.

In the *building trades* there were 52 strikes, or 17.7 per cent of the strikes in all industries; 151 establishments involved, or 22.2 per cent of all the establishments; 2,566 strikers, or 5.3 per cent of all the strikers; 610, or 1.3 per cent of all the other employees involuntarily thrown out of work; and 49,615 working days lost, or 2.2 per cent of all the working

time lost. Of the 52 strikes in the building trades, 24, or 46.2 per cent of all the strikes occurring in the industry, were in Boston; the number of establishments involved was 50, or 33.1 per cent of all the establishments affected in the building trades; there were 1,735 strikers, or 67.6 per cent of all the strikers; 585 other employees thrown out of work, or 95.9 per cent of all the other employees involuntarily thrown out of work by the strike action of others; and 37,962 working days lost, or 76.5 per cent of all the working time lost in this industry.

In the *woolen and worsted goods industry* there were 32 strikes, or 10.9 per cent of all the strikes; 45 establishments involved, or 6.6 per cent of all the establishments; 12,122 strikers, or 25.2 per cent of all the strikers; 13,493, or 29.0 per cent of all the other employees thrown out of work; and 796,730 working days lost, or 34.4 per cent of all the working time lost. Lawrence was affected to a greater extent by strikes than were any of the other textile centers. Seven strikes, or 21.9 per cent of all the strikes occurring in the woolen and worsted goods industry, were inaugurated in that city; 9,471 operatives, or 78.1 per cent of all the strikers in the industry, were directly involved; and approximately 755,989 working days, or 94.9 per cent of the total for the industry, were lost by the operatives.

In the *boot and shoe industry* there were 46 strikes, involving 135 establishments, or 19.9 per cent of all the establishments involved in strikes in 1912; 3,624 strikers, or 7.5 per cent of all the strikers; 5,058 non-strikers, or 10.9 per cent of all the other employees involuntarily thrown out of work; and the amount of working time lost was approximately 129,640 days. The city most affected by strikes in the boot and shoe industry was Lynn. In this city there were 19 strikes (28 in 1911), or 41.3 per cent of all the strikes occurring in this industry; 66 establishments (51 in 1911), or 48.9 per cent of all the establishments affected; 1,618 strikers (1,164 in 1911), or 44.6 per cent of all the strikers involved; 2,369 other employees thrown out of work, or 46.8 per cent of all the employees thrown out of work by the strike action of others; and approximately 46,186 working days lost (64,522 in 1911), or 35.6 per cent of all the working time lost in this industry. Haverhill followed with nine (one in 1911) in 50 (18 in 1911) different establishments, involving 755 (212 in 1911) strikers; 890 (18 in 1911) other employees were thrown out of work; and 41,119 (8,713 in 1911) working days were lost. The figures for Brockton show one strike (two in 1911) in one establishment (two in 1911) in which 25 strikers (32 in 1911) were involved; no other employees were thrown out of work (seven in 1911), and 175 (312 in 1911) working days were lost.

5. THE EFFECT OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

During the year 1912, 130 strikes, or 44.5 per cent (57.3 in 1911) of all the strikes,¹ were ordered by labor organizations; 489, or 72.1 per cent (77.0 in 1911) of all the establishments involved in strikes; and 28,233, or 59.0 per cent (63.3 in 1911) of the strikers, were included in strikes ordered by labor organizations.

In those industries in which the largest number of strikes occurred, namely, building trades, cotton goods, boots and shoes, and woolen and worsted goods, the following were the percentages of strikes and strikers in strikes which were ordered by labor organizations:

Building Trades: Strikes, 90.4; strikers, 95.4.

Cotton Goods: Strikes, 17.6; strikers, 75.8.

Boots and Shoes: Strikes, 62.2; strikers, 80.2.

Woolen and Worsted Goods: Strikes, 15.6; strikers, 12.0.

In those localities in which the largest number of strikes occurred, namely, Boston, Fall River, Lynn, Lawrence, and Haverhill, the following were the percentages of strikes, establishments involved, and strikers, in strikes which were ordered by labor organizations:

Boston: Strikes, 77.8; establishments, 91.2; strikers, 94.0.

Fall River: Strikes, 10.3; establishments, 45.8; strikers, 8.4.

Lynn: Strikes, 78.6; establishments, 92.0; strikers, 70.4.

Lawrence: Strikes, 17.6; establishments, 28.6; strikers, 1.9.

Haverhill: Strikes, 60.0; establishments, 91.9; strikers, 91.4.

6. WOMEN IN LABOR DISPUTES.

Of the 48,007 strikers, 35,181, or 73.3 per cent, were males and 12,826, or 26.7 per cent (12.4 in 1911), were females. Of the 46,546 employees thrown out of work by strikes, 27,917, or 60.0 per cent, were males and 18,629, or 40.0 per cent (32.3 in 1911), were females.

In the corset industry all of the strikers were females; 40.9 per cent of the strikers in the cotton goods industry were females; 36.0 per cent in the woolen and worsted goods industry were females; and 34.9 per cent in the clothing (women's) industry were females.

In the cities most affected by labor disputes in 1912 the percentages of female strikers were: 3.8 in Boston; 46.8 in Fall River; 25.5 in Lynn; 33.0 in Lawrence; and 8.6 in Haverhill.

¹ These percentages are computed on the basis of 292 strikes, excluding the two lockouts, since it is obvious that a lockout could not be ordered by a labor organization.

7. SINGLE AND GENERAL STRIKES.

Of the 294 disputes which occurred during the year, 235, or 79.9 per cent (81.1 in 1911), were single strikes and 59 were general strikes. In the single strikes there were 235 establishments, or 34.6 per cent of all the establishments affected; 18,788 strikers, or 39.1 per cent of all the strikers; 13,057 other employees thrown out of work, or 28.1 per cent of all the other employees thrown out of work; and 436,939 working days lost, or 18.9 per cent of all the working days lost. In the general strikes there were 445 establishments, or 65.4 per cent of all the establishments affected; 29,219 strikers, or 60.9 per cent of all the strikers; 33,489 other employees thrown out of work, or 71.9 per cent of all the other employees thrown out of work; and 1,876,527 working days lost, or 81.1 per cent of all the working days lost.

II.

CAUSES OF STRIKES.

1. STATISTICS OF CAUSES FOR ALL INDUSTRIES.

The demand for an increase in wages, as might be expected, caused a larger number of strikes than any other single cause. This demand alone and in combination with other causes appeared in 157, or 53.4 per cent (44.6 in 1911) of all the strikes, and in 436, or 64.1 per cent (48.1 in 1911) of the establishments affected by strikes. This was also the most important cause so far as the number of strikers was concerned. The percentage of strikers in strikes due to this cause was 47.2 per cent (42.2 in 1911).

There were 42 strikes in 215 establishments for reduction in hours of labor alone and in combination with other causes. The desire for union shop conditions alone and in combination with other requests produced 44 strikes in 88, or 12.9 per cent (5.7 in 1911) of all the establishments affected. There were four sympathetic strikes involving 666 strikers. The percentage of strikers in strikes for reduction in hours of labor was 8.6 (23.1 in 1911). The percentage of strikers in strikes for the union shop was 10.0 (5.0 in 1911). Dissatisfaction with working conditions was the cause of 27 strikes in 58 establishments and involved 14,284, or 29.8 per cent (7.4 in 1911) of the strikers in all strikes.

2. CAUSES OF STRIKES ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

In those strikes which were ordered by labor organizations 16,835 employees, or 59.6 per cent (50.6 in 1911), struck for an increase in wages; 12,034, or 42.6 per cent (1.0 in 1911), because of dissatisfaction with working conditions; 3,829, or 13.6 per cent (10.4 in 1911), for recognition of union; 3,429, or 12.1 per cent (34.0 in 1911), for reduction in hours of labor; 3,409, or 12.1 per cent (5.8 in 1911), for union shop.

In the strikes which were not ordered by labor organizations, 8,871 employees, or 45.1 per cent (9.2 in 1911), struck against reduction in wages, and 5,756, or 29.3 per cent (28.2 in 1911), for increase in wages.

III.

DURATION OF STRIKES AND TIME LOST.

1. DURATION.

The majority of strikes which occurred during 1912 were of short duration. Strikes lasted but one week or less in 292 establishments, or 42.9 per cent (47.5 in 1911) of the total number of establishments affected by strikes during the year; in these 292 establishments there were 20.7 per cent (45.5 in 1911) of the total number of strikers involved. The number of establishments affected by strikes which did not last more than two weeks was 401, or 59.0 per cent (67.8 in 1911), and involved 30.6 per cent (67.0 in 1911) of the strikers. There were 25 establishments, or 3.7 per cent of the total number, in which the strikes lasted more than 10 weeks and in which were involved but 5.9 per cent of the strikers. The longest strike lasted 164 days and involved 48 strikers and four establishments (257 days, eight strikers, and one establishment in 1911).

The duration of all the strikes which began during the year aggregated 11,889¹ working days (8,301 in 1911). For each establishment in which strikes occurred the average duration before the places of strikers were filled or the strikers were re-employed was 17.5 working days (16.9 in 1911).

2. WORKING TIME LOST.

During the year 1912 the total number of working days lost was 2,313,466 (233,806 in 1911), which is equivalent (on the hypothesis that the average working year is 300 days) to the labor of 7,711 persons (779 in 1911) for one year.

3. THE EFFECT OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Strikes ordered by labor organizations were of much longer duration than those not so ordered. The total duration of all the strikes² was 11,877¹ working days (8,278 in 1911). The average duration of the strikes, in each establishment, ordered by labor organizations was 20.6

¹ Based on the duration in each establishment.

² Not including lockouts.

working days (60.5 in 1911), while the average duration of strikes, in each establishment, not ordered by labor organizations was 9.6 working days (7.6 in 1911).

4. PREVALENCE OF STRIKES ACCORDING TO SEASONS OF THE YEAR.

The large proportion of strikes which were begun in the spring was especially conspicuous. During the year 38.8 per cent (32.9 in 1911) of all the strikes, affecting 37.9 per cent (41.0 in 1911) of all the strikers, began during the spring months (March, April, and May); 26.5 per cent of all the strikes, involving 27.0 per cent of all the strikers, began during the summer months; 16.3 per cent of the strikes, involving 29.5 per cent of the total number of strikers, began in the winter months; and 18.4 per cent of the strikes, involving 5.6 per cent of the strikers, began in the autumn months. The largest number of strikes in any one month occurred in April, when there were 49, or 16.7 per cent of all the strikes, involving 3,304, or 6.9 per cent of all the strikers. The largest number of strikers involved was shown in January, when there were 12,628, or 26.3 per cent of all the employees who struck during the year.

5. STRIKES OF LESS THAN ONE DAY'S DURATION.

The principal facts that could be obtained relating to the 36 brief labor controversies which lasted less than one day, in which there was an actual, well-defined cessation of work for the purpose of enforcing a demand, are here presented.¹ The cessation of work ranged from one hour to eight hours (three-fourths of one day); 802 strikers were involved, of which number 635 were males and 167 were females; 36 different establishments were affected, in which 31 employees were involuntarily thrown out of work as a result of the strike action of others. Six of these strikes were ordered by labor organizations and 30 strikes were not so ordered.

Thirteen of these brief strikes were successful, five were partly successful, and 18 failed; 418 strikers succeeded in gaining full compliance with their demands, 207 were partly successful, and 177 failed.

Twelve strikes, involving 328 strikers, were inaugurated for an increase in wages. Three of these strikes were successful, and 66 strikers were granted a wage increase; in three of the strikes, 183 strikers gained part of their demands; while in six of the strikes, 79 strikers failed to receive any wage increase. Six strikes (98 strikers) were waged over questions of trade union rules, including the union shop principle, trade jurisdiction,

¹ These 36 strikes are not included in the statistics of strikes which occurred during 1912.

and apprentice rules; four of these strikes (86 strikers) were successful and two (12 strikers) failed. Six strikes, involving 190 strikers, were caused by dissatisfaction with working conditions. Three of these strikes were entirely successful and 171 strikers were granted their demands; in one strike, eight strikers succeeded in gaining part of their demands; while in two strikes, 11 strikers failed to gain any of their demands.

IV.

RESULTS OF STRIKES.

1. INTRODUCTORY.

The proportion of strikers who succeeded in gaining better conditions than existed before the strike was 61.0 per cent (57.3 in 1911), while 35.3 per cent (24.1 in 1911) were successful in obtaining *all* of their demands. The proportion of strikers who failed in securing any of their demands was 39.0 per cent (42.7 in 1911).

Of the 265 establishments in which strikes failed the places of the majority of the strikers were filled in 149, or 56.2 per cent of the establishments, and approximately 4,577, or 24.4 per cent (55.4 in 1911) of the employees, lost their positions. It is manifestly impossible to determine how long it took those strikers whose positions were filled by others to obtain work elsewhere under conditions as favorable as those which they had before striking.

2. THE EFFECT OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

In strikes which were ordered by labor organizations 52.7 per cent (66.5 in 1911) of the employees who struck during the year were successful in gaining better conditions than existed before the cessation of work, while in strikes which were not ordered by labor organizations the percentage of strikers who succeeded wholly or in part in gaining their demands was 72.9 (40.6 in 1911).

The proportion of strikers involved in strikes ordered by labor organizations in 1912 who were entirely successful was 19.3 per cent (25.2 in 1911); in strikes not so ordered the percentage of strikers entirely successful was 58.2 (22.2 in 1911). In the strikes ordered by labor organizations 47.3 per cent of the strikers (33.5 in 1911) failed entirely, as compared with 27.1 per cent (59.4 in 1911) in the case of strikes not ordered by labor organizations. These figures show a degree of success among strikers in strikes not ordered by labor organizations far above that among strikers in ordered strikes, a result which is very different from conditions in preceding years and may be accounted for by the fact that the successful strike of textile workers at Lawrence, in which

8,404 strikers were involved, was *not ordered* by a labor organization, although the success of the strike was due in a great measure to the effective leadership of the Industrial Workers of the World in organizing the strikers into a militant body of class-conscious workers.

3. RESULTS AS DEPENDENT UPON CAUSES.

In strikes for increased wages, 63.3 per cent of the employees concerned were successful in their demands in whole or in part. In strikes against a reduction in wages 96.0 per cent (25.6 in 1911) of the employees engaged attained their objects in whole or in part. Strikes for a reduction in hours were quite successful, 70.8 per cent (76.1 in 1911) of the strikers gaining their demands in whole or in part. Strikes for the closed shop were not very successful, the percentage showing 32.6 per cent of the employees attaining that object as compared with 72.7 per cent in 1911.

In strikes for recognition of union, 70.8 per cent of the strikers were successful in whole or in part. Strikes waged on account of dissatisfaction with working conditions were generally unsuccessful, only 11.5 per cent of the strikers gaining any of their demands.

4. RESULTS ACCORDING TO DURATION.

Of all the strikes which took place during 1912, those which occurred in 29.8 per cent (33.2 in 1911) of the establishments resulted in entire success. Short strikes, lasting one week or less, were considerably more successful than all strikes combined, those in 47.6 per cent of the establishments (50.2 in 1911) being wholly successful. Strikes lasting two weeks or less were more successful than all strikes combined, 40.9 per cent (42.9 in 1911) being wholly successful. It must be borne in mind, however, that the results for all strikes are themselves greatly affected by the short strikes, which are more numerous than the long ones. The proportion of partly successful strikes among those lasting one week or less was smaller than the proportion for the entire number of strikes, and the proportion of those lasting two weeks or less was also somewhat smaller. Of the strikes which lasted more than 30 days those in only 1.5 per cent of the establishments involved (14.0 in 1911) were wholly successful, while strikes in 51.2 per cent of the establishments (31.6 in 1911) resulted in total failure.

In short and long strikes the relative figures with regard to the percentage of *strikers* who were successful or unsuccessful show similar results and confirm the conclusions already stated, although generally

speaking, strikes lasting one week or less (or two weeks or less) are slightly different in their results, as measured by this standard, from all strikes combined. Strikes lasting more than 30 days showed a very small proportion of wholly successful strikers, 10.4 per cent (14.4 in 1911), as compared with 35.3 per cent (24.1 in 1911) for all strikes, while the proportion of those who failed altogether, 46.0 per cent (36.9 in 1911), was somewhat larger than the proportion of strikers who were unsuccessful in all strikes combined, 39.0 per cent (42.7 in 1911).

V.

METHODS OF SETTLEMENT.¹

The most common method of settling strikes was by direct negotiations between the employer and the employees or their representatives. In 452, or 66.5 per cent (61.7 in 1911) of all the establishments, the strikes were settled by direct negotiations between the employers and employees. The number of strikers in strikes settled in this manner was 28,277, or 58.9 per cent (48.7 in 1911) of the total number of strikers. There were two establishments, or 0.3 per cent (6.5 in 1911) of all the establishments affected by strikes, in which the disputes were settled by arbitration, and 2,340 strikers, or 4.9 per cent (14.0 in 1911) of all the strikers, were in disputes which were settled in this manner. There were 149, or 21.9 per cent (18.3 in 1911) of the establishments, in which the strikes were settled by filling the places of the strikers. There were 77 establishments in which the strikes were settled by other methods.

Of the 452 establishments in which the strikes were settled by direct negotiations, 110 were in the building trades and 96 in the boot and shoe industry. Of the 149 establishments in which strikes were settled by filling the places of the strikers, 31 were in the boot and shoe industry and 29 were in the building trades.

¹ Statistical tables relative to the methods of settlement may be found on page 51.

VI.

THE STRIKE OF TEXTILE WORKERS AT LAWRENCE.¹

1. INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY.

In Lawrence fully one-half of the population 14 years of age or over is employed in the woolen and worsted mills and cotton mills, and approximately 60,000 (including employees and members of their families) of the 85,892 people living in Lawrence are directly dependent upon earnings in these textile mills.

The textile strike in Lawrence and the conditions which followed were not primarily due to any condition peculiar to Lawrence. The general conditions of the industry in Lawrence are more or less typical of the textile industry in all of the large distinctly textile towns, and the strike in Lawrence and the conditions attending it might just as easily have occurred in any other of these towns.

The strike involved all of the textile mills in Lawrence and occurred in the early part of 1912, beginning January 11 and continuing with little abatement until it was declared off, as far as it affected the greater part of the mills and employees, on Thursday afternoon, March 14, and the strikers voted to return to work in the mills in which a settlement had been effected on the morning of March 18. During the first few days of the strike approximately 14,000 employees withdrew from their work, later accessions increased the number on strike to approximately 23,000, and at the time of the settlement of the strike there were still about 17,000 employees out.

The immediate cause of the strike was a reduction in earnings, growing out of the State law which became effective January 1, 1912, and which reduced the hours of employment for women and for children under 18 years of age from 56 to 54 hours per week. In January, 1910, through an enactment of the Legislature, the hours of this class of employees had been reduced from 58 to 56 hours a week, and at that time the rates of pay for both time-workers and piece-workers were readjusted so that the earnings under the 56-hour week remained the same as under the 58-hour week.

¹ From report by the United States Bureau of Labor on the Strike of Textile Workers in Lawrence, Mass., in 1912, printed as Senate Document No. 870, 62d Congress, 2d Session.

The law provided that notice should be posted in all mills showing the exact number of hours and fractions of an hour that were to be worked each day after January 1, in order to bring about the 54-hour week. The necessary notices concerning hours required by law were posted in all the mills, but no notices were posted concerning any change in the rates for time or piece-workers. In the minds of the employees there was unquestionably much uncertainty as to what their earnings were to be under the new schedule of hours.

In the textile mills of Lawrence a large proportion of workers are piece-workers. In the principal mills the employees not on piece-rates are practically paid by the hour. One of the complaints of the strikers was that no notice was given as to the reduction of earnings that they suffered after January 1. The representatives of the mills contended that as the workers who were not paid on the piece basis were practically paid by the hour, the posting of a notice of a reduction of hours with no notice of change in their piece or time-rates was in itself notice that the earnings of time-workers would necessarily suffer a reduction of two hours' pay a week, and that the earnings of piece-workers would suffer a similar reduction, unless the workers found themselves able to accomplish the same amount of work in 54 hours that they had previously accomplished in 56.

The representatives of the mills further pointed out that when in 1910 the hours were reduced from 58 to 56 notices were posted giving the new scale of time and piece-rates that became effective, in order that there might be no reduction of earnings through the reduction of hours; and that the absence of notices readjusting time and piece-rates was in itself notice that the reduction of hours would automatically work a reduction of earnings.

An overwhelming proportion of the employees of the Lawrence mills were, however, foreign-speaking men and women who required something more definite and specific than this to understand precisely the effect upon their earnings of the reduction of hours, and there can be no question that up to the time of the first payment for work done after January 1 there was a good deal of uncertainty in the minds of a majority of the employees as to what their earnings were to be after the reduction in hours. In at least one of the mills a delegation from the more skilled English-speaking employees called, in December, upon the superintendent of the mill and was told that there would be no change in the rates for either time or piece-workers and that both classes would therefore suffer a reduction in earnings. In the same mill instructions were given to the

foremen to pass this word around among the unskilled employees, and this information did, as a matter of fact, circulate to a considerable extent both among the English-speaking and the non-English-speaking employees. However, up to January 1 no official and direct statement had been made public on the subject, and at a regular meeting of the Lawrence English branch of the Industrial Workers of the World on January 2, 1912, a committee was appointed to see the mill officials in Lawrence and to ask for a definite statement as to the effect of the change of hours upon the earnings of the employees. The officials of some of the mills refused to confer with the committee. The officials at one mill sent back to find out the purpose of the call of the committee, and upon learning what it was they returned word to the committee that it would have to take up the matter with the main office of the corporation in Boston.

Although dissatisfaction over the possibility of a reduction in earnings on account of the shortened hours had really begun before the 1st of January, it is evident that the mill officials did not appreciate the extent of this dissatisfaction or the possibilities latent in it. Late in December one of the principal mill officials in Boston wrote to a representative of another mill in Lawrence suggesting that the reduction in pay would precipitate trouble, but the agent of the mill in Lawrence replied that he doubted if there would be any trouble, and at the worst it would probably be confined to a strike in a single mill.

After the 1st of January the feeling on the part of the employees that they were to suffer a reduction of earnings grew steadily, and with it a correspondingly increasing feeling of unrest and a determination to resist any such reduction.

Up to the beginning of the strike there was little or no effective organization among the employees, taken as a whole. A few of the skilled crafts, composed principally of English-speaking workers, had their own separate organizations, but the 10 crafts thus organized had at the time of the strike only approximately 2,500 members. The Industrial Workers of the World had also some years before this established an organization in Lawrence. At the beginning of the strike they claimed a membership of approximately 1,000. They had at different times names on their rolls in excess of this number, but it is estimated by active members of the organization that at the beginning of January, 1912, there were not more than 300 paid-up members on the rolls of the Industrial Workers.

The Industrial Workers were organized along nationality or racial lines, and of the 300 paid-up members about 200 were in the Franco-

Belgian branch, which was largely made up of French or Belgian weavers, with some few English operatives. Thus, at the beginning of 1912 there were only about 2,800 definitely enrolled in the labor organizations out of a total of 30,000 to 35,000 textile-mill employees in Lawrence.

The increasing dissatisfaction over the prospect of reduced earnings began to make itself more manifest among the low-paid non-English-speaking employees. In the absence of any effective form of organization among this class of employees, it was difficult to formulate an articulate expression of opposition to the reduction in earnings or to bring it properly before the mill officials; but as the first pay day for time worked in 1912 approached, meetings began to be held which indicated clearly the possibilities of trouble that lay in the situation.

The employees of the mills, particularly those at that time belonging to the Industrial Workers of the World and those later affiliated with that organization, had been holding meetings and discussing the situation prior to the strike, and some races — Polish and Italian — had voted to strike in case their envelopes on January 12 showed a reduction in pay by reason of the change in hours. The English-speaking members of the Industrial Workers of the World had advised employees not to strike until better organized. Some of the meetings were given marked publicity in the Lawrence daily papers. The Lawrence Sun of Thursday, January 11, carried the following news item with large head lines across two columns:

ITALIAN MILL WORKERS VOTE TO GO OUT ON STRIKE FRIDAY.

IN NOISY MEETING 900 MEN VOICE DISSATISFACTION OVER REDUCED PAY BECAUSE OF
54-HOUR LAW.

A mass meeting of almost all the Italian mill workers of this city was held Wednesday evening in Ford's Hall. The object of the meeting was to discuss the new 54-hour law and to hear the reports of the different committees which had interviewed their respective mill agents. The reports were unfavorable to the 900 people who jammed the hall. It was decided that all Italians of all the mills strike on next Friday evening. They claim that the wages which they now receive because of the 54-hour law are not sufficient for them to live on, and that they want their pay raised to the amount which they formerly received. The meeting was presided over by Angeline Rocco.

The Lawrence Eagle of Friday, January 12, carried a news item which contained the following paragraph:

WILL WALK OUT.

Voting unanimously to walk out if their pay for 54 hours is less than that received for 56 hours, several hundred Italians, Poles, and Lithuanians, who are employed in

the local mills, met last evening in Ford's Hall. A majority of those who attended the meeting will receive their pay to-day.

A mass meeting will be held Saturday afternoon at 2 o'clock in the city hall, at which speakers in English, Italian, Polish, and French will be present.

In view of the large number of non-English-speaking operatives involved, and of the excitable nature of these operatives and the possibilities of damage and serious disorder if they became thoroughly aroused under the feeling of unjust or oppressive treatment, it seems strange that this matter should have been allowed to drift up to the first pay day without any effort being made to reach some agreement that would prevent an outbreak. Up to this time, in fact up to the time of the strike itself and for a short period after the actual beginning of the strike, the only subject of unrest among the employees and the only matter discussed by them was the continuance of the same pay for 54 hours' work as they had formerly received for 56 hours. In spite of the lack of any effective organization among the unskilled non-English-speaking operatives, a definite determination to strike in the event that their pay envelopes contained less than under the 56-hour schedule had evidently been arranged.

As has already been stated, in the meetings of employees held before the strike, in the inquiries made of employers by employees before the strike, and even in the discussions of the situation by the strikers just after the beginning of the strike, the employees suggested nothing more than the same pay for 54 hours' work as had been received for 56 hours' work before January 1, 1912.

Shortly after the strike began a "strike committee," representing a large majority of the strikers and presided over by a member of the general executive board of the Industrial Workers of the World, formulated demands which included:

1. Fifteen per cent increase in wages on the 54-hour basis.
2. Double time for overtime work.
3. The abolition of all bonus and premium systems.
4. No discrimination against the strikers for activity during the strike.

The "strike committee" did not change its demands throughout the strike except that after the arrest of Ettor and Giovannitti the demand for their release from jail on bail was added. The demands of the organizations affiliated with the Central Labor Union, made just before the middle of February, differed from the demands made by the "strike committee" in that advances were demanded for specific occupations or crafts; the increase demanded for most of the occupations was 15 per

cent, although in a few occupations 20 per cent increase was asked, and in the case of some of the more skilled crafts as low as 4 per cent was asked.

On January 11, the date of the beginning of the strike, there was no violence, but on the next day, when several thousand employees quit work, they marched in a body and forced their way into two of the mills. Property was destroyed in the mills, mill windows were broken by pieces of ice thrown by the strikers, and also there was a collision between the strikers and police. On the following Monday morning there was more marching; also, property was destroyed in other mills, and again there was a collision between the strikers and the police.

To assist in maintaining order in Lawrence during the strike the regular police force was augmented by the appointment of special police and by the addition of metropolitan park police from other sections of the State and also through the calling out of a number of companies of militia. The militia remained on duty in Lawrence throughout the strike. Two deaths resulted from collisions between strikers and the authorities; one, a young Syrian, was stabbed with a bayonet, and the other, an Italian woman, was shot and killed during a riot.

Efforts to settle the strike were made by the Massachusetts State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, by a legislative committee, and also by city officials of Lawrence and by members of a committee appointed by the business men of Lawrence.

At the beginning of the strike some 2,500 textile mill employees were members of unions organized along craft lines. Some of these unions were affiliated with the United Textile Workers of America, while others were independent organizations. The great mass of the unskilled, non-English-speaking employees who left the mills were not organized at all, with the exception of a few hundred who were organized under the Industrial Workers of the World. The employees who were members of the Industrial Workers of the World, practically all of the unskilled workers, and some of the skilled crafts united for the purpose of the strike and selected a "strike committee," and this committee handled the strike. The "strike committee" was not a committee of the Industrial Workers of the World and a number of its members were not, to the close of the strike, affiliated with that organization. The chairman of the "strike committee," however, and several of the dominant figures in the conduct of the strike were members of the Industrial Workers at the time the strike began.

From the beginning of the strike there was no co-operation between

the crafts organized on trade-union lines and represented by the Central Labor Union and the "strike committee," but there was, on the contrary, considerable hostility, which continued with increasing bitterness up to the conclusion of the strike. The strikers represented by the "strike committee" had, as already indicated, formulated their demands and made them public within a few days after the beginning of the strike.

It had been believed by the mill representatives during the early part of the strike that the skilled operatives affiliated with the Central Labor Union were not on strike, but had left the mill either on account of lack of work or through fear of violence. In the early part of February, however, these organizations definitely joined the strike and, in a series of meetings, they drew up a list of grievances to be submitted to the mills.

Thus what, in the beginning, had been a disorganized and more or less inarticulate protest against a reduction equivalent to two hours' earnings per week, and which had been started by a comparatively few unskilled, non-English-speaking employees, developed into an organized strike of over 20,000 employees, who demanded a considerable increase in wages and radical changes in working conditions affecting more than 30,000 textile workers in Lawrence.

The strikers secured the following settlement from the American Woolen Co. and much the same settlement from other mills:

Time and one-quarter for overtime.

All people on job work, 5 per cent increase flat.

All those receiving less than $9\frac{1}{2}$ cents per hour, an increase of 2 cents per hour.

All those receiving between $9\frac{1}{2}$ and 10 cents an hour, an increase of $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents per hour.

All those receiving between 10 and 11 cents per hour, an increase of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per hour.

All those receiving between 11 and 12 cents per hour, an increase of $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per hour.

All those receiving between 12 and 20 cents per hour, an increase of 1 cent per hour.

No discrimination to be shown to any one.

Premiums to be given out every two weeks instead of every four, as heretofore. [This applied only to a few occupations in the mills in which a premium plan was in force.]

As a result of the strike some 30,000 textile-mill employees in Lawrence secured an increase in wages of from 5 to 20 per cent; increased compensation for overtime; and the reduction of the premium period in

certain occupations from four weeks to two weeks. Also, as an indirect result of the Lawrence strike, material increases in wages were granted to thousands of employees in other textile mills throughout New England.

2. ARRESTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE STRIKE.

Considering the fact that in Lawrence there were as many as 23,000 persons out of employment at times during the strike the number of arrests was not large.

The number of arrests growing out of the strike during the period from January 12 to March 13, inclusive, was 296. More than 296 arrests were made in Lawrence during the period indicated, but only 296 arrests were of strikers, or persons connected with the strike, or in any way grew out of the strike. Three hundred and fifty-five cases in the police court at Lawrence grew out of the 296 arrests, and the cases were disposed of as follows:

Fined,	220
Sentenced to imprisonment,	54
Discharged, dismissed, or continued,	60
Bound over,	4
Held without bail,	2
Otherwise disposed of,	15
 Total,	 355

The charges most generally placed against those arrested were disturbance, assault, intimidation, or rioting.

After the first few days there were but few serious clashes between the police and the strikers which approached the nature of a riot. The statement of arrests and of the charges against those arrested do not, however, give an adequate expression of the conditions in Lawrence during the 10 weeks of the existence of the strike. While, on the one hand, it may be stated that few strikes involving so large a number of employees, unorganized, undisciplined, and many of them unfamiliar with our language and methods of government, have continued as long as the Lawrence strike with so little actual violence or riot, it must also be said that during almost the entire period the situation was a tense and threatening one, and there was hardly a time that a slight cause might not have produced the gravest disorder culminating in riot and bloodshed.

3. ORGANIZATION OF EMPLOYEES.

Two distinct types of antagonistic employees' organizations were represented among the textile-mill employees of Lawrence.

First. The United Textile Workers of America and other labor unions affiliated with the Central Labor Union are organized upon distinctly trade lines, each organization having in its membership only such persons as are engaged in a given occupation. While these organizations are carrying on a struggle for higher wages, shorter hours, and a general betterment of conditions of labor, as viewed from the wage-earners' standpoint, they still accept the existing social order and the continuance of the wage system.

Second. The Industrial Workers of the World, a union of workers without regard to crafts. In opposition to the basis of organization adopted in the unions above referred to, the Industrial Workers endeavor to bring together in a single union all wage earners, irrespective of trade or occupational lines. In many places, on account of the heterogeneous character of its members and the lack of a common language, the organization is broken up into sections formed upon racial or nationality lines. The Industrial Workers, while having the same economic aim — the betterment of the conditions of the wage earners — as the unions organized along craft or occupational lines, have an entirely different program for the attainment of this end, adopting a different social philosophy and being opposed to the continuance of the present industrial order based upon the wage system. One of the mottoes or maxims of this organization claims that "Labor is entitled to all it produces," and another demands the "Abolition of the wage system." The preamble of the constitution of the Industrial Workers of the World states:

The working class and the employing class have nothing in common. There can be no peace so long as hunger and want are found among millions of working people, and the few, who make up the employing class, have all the good things of life.

Between these two classes a struggle must go on until the workers of the world organize as a class, take possession of the earth and the machinery of production, and abolish the wage system.

We find that the centering of the management of industries into fewer and fewer hands makes the trade unions unable to cope with the ever-growing power of the employing class. The trade unions foster a state of affairs which allows one set of workers to be pitted against another set of workers in the same industry, thereby helping defeat one another in wage wars. Moreover, the trade unions aid the employing class to mislead the workers into the belief that the working class has interests in common with their employers.

These conditions can be changed and the interest of the working class upheld only by an organization formed in such a way that all its members in any one industry, or in all industries, if necessary, cease work whenever a strike or lockout is on in any department thereof, thus making an injury to one an injury to all.

Instead of the conservative motto, "A fair day's wages for a fair day's work," we must inscribe on our banner the revolutionary watchword, "Abolition of the wage system."

It is the historic mission of the working class to do away with capitalism. The army of production must be organized, not only for the everyday struggle with capitalists, but also to carry on production when capitalism shall have been overthrown. By organizing industrially we are forming the structure of the new society within the shell of the old.

The Lawrence strike represented the first serious industrial clash in New England conducted under the auspices of the Industrial Workers. It became, therefore, more than an industrial strike, and, within the territory of its activities, took on some of the aspects of what might be termed a social revolution.

No adequate conception of the meaning and the permanent social consequences of the doctrines promulgated during the period of the bitter struggle can be had without some comprehension of the spirit and sentiment that animated the leaders and a part of the strikers. In [Appendix B of . . . the United States Bureau's] report are given copies of circulars and posters which were widely distributed during the period of the strike, and some of these indicate the temper and the spirit that lay behind the struggle.

In considering this aspect of the strike it must be borne in mind that the great majority of the strikers were non-English-speaking immigrants who had been without any effective organization or any method of collective bargaining through which they might have been able through orderly processes to conduct negotiations with their employers as to their wages, hours, and conditions of employment.

While there was opposition on the part of the employers to the organization of this great mass of unskilled non-English-speaking employees, it is equally true that the existing forms of unions built up on trade lines do not readily make provision for the organization of this class of employees. The net result was that such employees were left unorganized, with no ready means of formulating any protest against the conditions under which they felt themselves to be suffering; and it may be added that their attempt immediately before the strike to express their opposition to the reduction of wages was given neither encouragement nor consideration by the employers. It naturally followed that when they broke

out in a hastily planned and more or less violent protest against a reduction of their earnings they were ready to follow any leadership that gave them effective direction and furnished them financial resources for their struggle, and they were accordingly in a frame of mind to give sympathetic ear and in many cases ready acceptance to the doctrines and social theories promulgated by the representatives of the Industrial Workers of the World.

4. RELIEF ORGANIZATIONS.

When the strike was at its height some 50,000 out of the total population of Lawrence, of approximately 85,000, were without employment or any source of income. Included in the 50,000 are the 23,000 strikers and also the members of their families dependent upon them. Without income, any savings which might have been accumulated from their earnings would soon have been exhausted and the direst suffering would have followed quickly without the prompt establishment of relief work.

The trade-unions could quickly organize to furnish relief, but only some 2,800 of the 23,000 strikers were members of any union. The remaining 20,000 were simply out of employment, without any income, and without any financial assistance in view.

The fact that an organization for furnishing relief to all strikers was immediately established, and successfully operated throughout the strike, was undoubtedly the all-important factor in enabling the strikers to enforce their demands to the extent they did.

The relief problem was a comparatively simple one for the older organizations composed of skilled employees and affiliated with the Central Labor Union. These organizations represented the better-paid employees, and they also had an established system of giving relief during strikes. The Women's Trade Union League of Boston offered to co-operate with the Central Labor Union in furnishing relief to textile workers, and joint headquarters were opened for the distribution of supplies.

The "strike committee" which represented the unorganized strikers, those who were affiliated with the Industrial Workers of the World, and a few of the unions organized along craft lines, promptly organized a relief committee and sent out an appeal for funds throughout the country. A ready response was received and contributions continued all during the strike. The relief funds came from all sections of the country and were from trade-unions, individual unions, socialist organizations, and private individuals. The amount contributed averaged about \$1,000 per day, but on some days the amount received exceeded \$3,000.¹

¹ The total receipts were \$62,564.40. See note on page 40.

In addition to the relief furnished by organizations of the strikers, a relief station was maintained by social workers, and a great amount of relief was distributed by the religious and civic charitable organizations of the city and also by private individuals.

5. WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR AND CONDITIONS OF WORK IN THE TEXTILE MILLS.

The immediate cause of the strike in Lawrence was a reduction in earnings growing out of the Massachusetts law that became effective January 1, 1912, which reduced the hours of employment for women and for children under 18 years of age from 56 to 54 hours per week. A former act of the Legislature, effective January 1, 1910, had reduced the hours from 58 to 56, and at that time the Lawrence mills had increased both piece and day rates so that the reduction in hours per week from 58 to 56 had meant no reduction in weekly earnings. With the reduction in hours from 56 to 54 on January 1, 1912, the time and piece-rates were not readjusted, and this reduction in hours meant, therefore, a reduction in weekly earnings of $3\frac{4}{7}$ per cent. This reduction appears slight, but it was really a very serious matter to the low-paid textile-mill employees.

The law of the State does not permit the employment of persons under 14 years of age. Approximately one-half of the persons in Lawrence 14 years of age and over — men, women, and young persons — are employed in the textile mills. In studying the Lawrence strike, wage data were secured from pay rolls for 21,922 textile-mill employees, or one-third of the total number of people in Lawrence 14 years of age and over. The average rate of wages for the 21,922 textile-mill employees was 16 cents per hour. Approximately one-fourth (23.3 per cent) of the total number earned less than 12 cents per hour, and about one-fifth (20.4 per cent) earned 20 cents and over per hour.

The average amount actually received by the 21,922 employees during a week late in 1911, in which the mills were running full time, was \$8.76. Almost one-third (33.2 per cent) of the total number received less than \$7 during the week, and approximately one-half as many (17.5 per cent) received \$12 and over during the week.

The earnings are, of course, materially affected by the amount of work available, and while it was not possible to get an exact measure of the slack time in the textile mills of Lawrence, sufficient data were secured to confirm the complaints of the mill employees as to the serious curtailment of their earnings by reason of lost time, particularly during the past two or three years.

The hours of work for women and for minors under 18 were limited to 56 before the strike; no limit was placed by law upon the hours of work of men. During the week for which pay-roll data were secured 57.2 per cent of the 21,922 employees worked 56 hours, 22.9 per cent worked less than 56 hours, and about an equal proportion (19.9 per cent) worked more than 56 hours. The average hours worked during the week were 54.4.

The distribution of the 21,922 employees for which wage data were secured into sex and age groups was as follows:

	Number.	Percentages.
<i>All Employees.</i>	<i>21,922</i>	<i>100.0</i>
<i>Males.</i>	<i>12,150</i>	<i>55.4</i>
18 years of age and over,	11,075	50.5
Under 18 years of age,	1,075	4.9
<i>Females.</i>	<i>9,772</i>	<i>44.6</i>
18 years of age and over,	8,320	88.0
Under 18 years of age,	1,452	6.6

The actual economic condition of the families of the workers in the textile mills in Lawrence can not be easily pictured by a mere statement of individual earnings. It is obvious from the figures of earnings that the full-time earnings of a large number of adult employees are entirely inadequate to maintain a family. Thus the full-time earnings of 7,275 employees, or about one-third of the total covered in this investigation, are less than \$7 a week. Of the 7,275 earning less than \$7 a week, 5,294 were 18 years of age or over, and 36.5 per cent of the 5,294 were males. These wages, however, are not peculiar to Lawrence. The wages of textile workers in that city are not lower than in most other textile towns. The plain fact is that the textile industry, as far as earnings are concerned, is in large part a "family industry." It gives employment to men, women, and children. The normal family of five, unless the father is employed in one of the comparatively few better-paying occupations, is compelled to supply two wage-earners in order to secure the necessities of life.

From a study of the table showing earnings it is very apparent that in many occupations, if the father of the family has not at least one child old enough to go to work, it becomes necessary for the wife to enter the mill to supplement the earnings of the husband in order to maintain a family. Where, as is often the case, the father, the mother, and three or more sons or daughters are at work and contribute their earnings to a common family fund, the family can live in comfort and lay a tidy sum aside weekly in the way of savings. But, on the other hand, the economic

condition of the head of the family in one of the poorer-paid occupations, with two or three children so young as to necessitate the mother remaining at home to care for them, is one of extreme hardship.

Necessity forces a large number of wives with small children to enter the mills, and in these cases, where no older children or other members of the family remain at home throughout the day, the small children are left in charge of other families, in which the mother or some grown female member of the family looks after those left in her charge. In some instances the children are taken out on Sunday afternoons to the country and left there until the following Saturday, then during the Saturday afternoon holiday the parents go out and bring the children back home and keep them until the afternoon of the following day. The usual practice is, however, for the father and mother to take the children, before going to work at 6.50 A.M., to a neighboring family, in whose charge they are left during the day. In the evening, after the close of the day's work, the children are again brought home. In families where there are older children who are still at school the father and mother go to work and leave the older children to take the younger brothers and sisters to the family in whose charge they are to be left. In the Italian quarter there is also, in connection with one of the churches, a day nursery, where a number of parents take their children on the way to work and leave them until they return in the evening. The rate usually charged for the board and care of a child ranges from \$1 to \$2 per week.

6. THE PREMIUM SYSTEM.

One of the demands of the Lawrence strikers was the "abolition of all bonus and premium systems." This demand was not conceded by the employers, but they did agree to allow premiums on earnings for a two-week period in all occupations in which the premium had previously been allowed on the earnings of a four-week period.

The premium system is in use in only two of the woolen and worsted mills in Lawrence for which the Bureau secured wage data. The principal occupations in which the premium plan is used are —

Weavers.

Loom fixers.

Second hands¹ in weave room.

Warp dressers.

Slashers.

Menders.

¹ "Second hand" is a term used in the textile industry to denote an assistant overseer.

The premium system, as actually worked out in the mills in which it is used, is somewhat complicated, and is explained in detail elsewhere in the report. The purpose of the system is to induce the largest possible output by each employee. The method of securing this varies. In some occupations a premium or a bonus in the shape of an amount of money in excess of the regular time or piece earnings is paid to each employee whose output exceeds some fixed standard. In some other occupations the premium or bonus is paid not directly on output, but for attendance — that is, it is paid any employee who has not missed more than one day during the four-week period.

In some instances the operative simply receives a specified bonus per unit on each unit turned out in excess of the minimum fixed for the attainment of the premium. In other instances the system is more complicated, a graduated premium being paid, increasing in rate as the earnings of the employee exceed the earnings fixed for the minimum premium. In the case of two occupations the premium is paid not upon the earnings of the occupation itself but upon the earnings of another occupation. Thus, the loom-fixer's premium is based upon the earnings of the weavers whose looms are in the charge of the loom fixer; and the premium of the assistant overseer of the room is based upon the earnings of all the loom fixers who are working under his direction.

The premium system is obviously intended, and frankly admitted by the employer to be designed, to increase the efficiency of the individual worker by offering a reward to encourage regular attendance and to induce an increase in output through steady and rapid work. It is believed by the employer that the system attracts the steady and most efficient workers; and it is argued that since the full standard rates are paid for work in the occupation in which premiums are paid, there is no unfairness to the employees in these occupations, but merely an additional reward for regularity in attendance and efficiency in work.

On the other hand, the opposition of the employees to the system is based upon a conviction that it is a plan devised primarily for the purpose of speeding up the employees in the occupations in which premiums are paid. This tendency toward speeding up, they hold, is further accentuated in the case of the weave room by the fact that the premiums paid both to loom fixers and to assistant overseers is determined by the earnings of the weavers. Thus in the case of the weaver the premium not only appeals to his own self-interest to induce intensity of work on his part to secure the increased earnings, but the payment to the loom fixer and to the assistant overseer of a premium based upon the earnings of the

weaver tends to induce these two classes of employees to "drive" the weaver even beyond the point to which his self-interest would urge him.

In answer to the contention of the employer that the regular rate per unit of output is paid to the weaver, that he therefore loses nothing by the adding of the premium system, and that he is free to earn it or not as he chooses, the employee argues that weavers who do not earn the premium, and thereby fail to add to the income of the loom fixer and of the assistant overseer, can not long remain in the weave room.

A further objection to the system — and one that was partly met by the concession of paying premiums on two weeks' instead of four weeks' earnings — is that an employee might for a period of, say, three weeks, or even more, work at high pressure and then, through illness or absence from other unavoidable causes, lose the benefit of his extra output during that period. Thus, in some occupations, it might easily happen that an employee by close application and energetic work for a period of 18 or 20 days could turn out, say, 10 per cent more than the amount necessary to be turned out each day to earn the premium if he worked the full month. If, however, he should be unable to work the remaining days and his earnings while at work did not total the minimum earnings fixed as the premium basis, he would secure no premium at all. He would, it is true, receive his regular rate for his additional output; but possibly the employee working next to him, whose earnings might exceed his own by only a few cents and who reached the minimum earnings required for a premium by working a few days longer, would receive his full premium. It is impossible to convince most employees that there is not injustice in such a system.

The employees were very emphatic in their claim that the premium system produces a tremendous nervous strain on the employee toward the close of the premium period through the fear that illness or trouble with his machine may prevent his reaching the earnings required to earn the premium, and that unexpected bad luck of this kind in the latter part of the period may thus entirely lose him the benefit of his close application in the earlier period.

The employees also argue as a matter of equity that if the employer can afford to pay an advanced price for the increased output he can also afford to pay at the same advanced rate for a slightly lower output. The employers' countercontention is that the capital invested in machinery creates a fixed charge; that every idle day of a machine requires a proportion of the fixed charge represented by that machine for that

day to be assessed on the product of the other machines, and that in the same way reduced output on any machine increases the fixed charge against the product of that machine.

7. HOUSING AND RENTS.

Practically all the textile mill employees in Lawrence live in wooden tenement houses. The most usual types of these are either three or four story buildings and, in the more thickly settled portions of the city, tenements occupy both the front and rear of the lots. These rear tenement houses can usually be reached from an alley, but the principal entrance, and in some cases the only entrance, is through a narrow passageway between the front buildings.

During 1911 only 11 of the 135 permits issued for dwellings provided for the erection of one-family cottages, and during the five years from 1907 to 1911 only slightly more than one dwelling permit out of seven provided for the erection of one-family cottages. During the four years from 1907 to 1910 permits were issued for 903 dwellings containing 2,654 apartments. Approximately one-third of the 2,654 apartments were in buildings containing four or more apartments each, and more than three-fourths were in buildings containing three or more apartments each. The following paragraphs are extracts from the manuscript of the Report of the Lawrence Survey:¹

There is a striking contrast between the insurance map of Lawrence and the maps of other New England cities in the number and size of rear houses. The maps of all important cities were examined. In those for Manchester, Lowell, Salem, Fall River, and New Bedford certain streets have front houses as close together and in some blocks as large as front houses in Lawrence, but the rear houses were not as numerous and not as large. Cambridge and Manchester have some badly grouped blocks, but the houses were smaller. Lowell and Salem have sections of blocks, groups of 4 to 18 houses each, equaling the worst congestion in Lawrence, but the pages in their maps do not display the conditions on the Lawrence map. The center of Lawrence has the largest number of large frame houses and the largest number of rear houses. With Boston's brick center excepted, the map of Lawrence center is the worst in New England. . . .

The two half blocks on the east end of Common Street adjoin each other on the south side of the street and with one-half of the surrounding streets contain 3.2 acres. All the houses but three are wooden. This is the greatest concentration of population in wooden houses in any 3 acres in the State of Massachusetts. No 3 acres in the State exceed it except at the infamous centers of Boston, where the houses are predominantly brick.

¹ Report of the "Lawrence Survey" prepared by Mr. Robert E. Todd under the direction of the trustees of the "White Fund."

The present building regulations of Lawrence are inadequate, as is indicated by the following extract from the report of the inspector of buildings of Lawrence for the year 1910:

Each year I have recommended that the city council take up the matter of revising the building ordinances. That suggestion is not out of place at this time. Last year and the year previous I recommended that the building ordinance be revised along the lines laid down by the National Board of Fire Underwriters. This year I make the same suggestion. Under the present ordinance there is no provision for foundations, thickness of brick walls, size of floor timbers or columns, floor loads, lighting or ventilation of building, protection against fire, or any of the important matters which a building ordinance should restrict. Of course, in a general way, some provision has been made in the ordinance to cover some of the matters above mentioned. The law should be specific and accurate in order to be effective.

With the compactly built squares, the large percentage of wooden structures, the crowding within the apartments in the central sections of Lawrence, and in many tenements very poorly lighted stairways, the fire risk both to life and property is very great. The apartments, practically without exception, are supplied with city water, and in every case the apartments are provided with water-closets. In a few of the older houses the water-closets have been placed in the hallway and one closet must be used by the occupants of two apartments, but in a number of the older houses and in all of the newer houses every apartment is supplied with a separate water-closet.

In studying conditions in Lawrence, agents of the Bureau of Labor visited 188 households, the greater part of them being of the races representing the unskilled workers in the textile mills. Of the 188 households visited, 109, or 58 per cent, kept lodgers or boarders. The total number of persons in the 188 households was 1,309, more than one-fourth of them being lodgers or boarders. The average number of persons per apartment was a little less than 7, and the average number of persons per room was one and one-half. One hundred of the 188 households occupied apartments of 5 rooms and 65 occupied apartments of 4 rooms each. In one case 17 persons occupied a 5-room apartment; another household of 16 persons occupied a 5-room apartment, and in another case a household of 15 persons occupied a 5-room apartment.

The rent per week varied from \$1 to \$6, but the amount most commonly paid was \$2 to \$3 for a 4-room apartment and \$3 to \$3.50 for a 5-room apartment.

One of the most crowded sections of Lawrence is occupied by South Italians and the rent they pay per room, while somewhat less than was

paid by families of that race in the most congested sections of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, is higher than that paid by households of that race in the most crowded sections of Chicago, Cleveland, Buffalo, and Milwaukee. This comparison is based on the Bureau's study in Lawrence and on the Immigration Commission's studies of immigrants in cities in 1907 to 1909, as published in volume 26 of the commission's reports.

Among the 188 households there were 20 families where the husband was the sole wage earner and where there were no lodgers or boarders. The lowest earnings for these 20 families was \$5.10 per full week, and the family consisted of husband, wife, and three children. The largest family among the 20 consisted of husband, wife, and five children, and the husband earned \$11.09 per full week.

Among the families studied there were 176 with both husband and wife; the wife as well as the husband was employed in 58 of the 176 families.

S. PRICES IN LAWRENCE.

No data are available which enable a comparison to be made of prices in Lawrence with prices in other cities of the country. The Bureau, however, secured quotations from Lawrence for the purpose of showing prices which were paid by textile employees in that city. Among some of the races from southern and eastern Europe there is a great demand for stew beef, costing at the time of the strike from 10 to 14 cents per pound. There is also a large call for fresh pork, at about 16 cents a pound. Comparatively little butter is consumed by these races, but considerable butterine is used, and leaf lard and beef suet are purchased and rendered for use as a substitute for butter. Macaroni and spaghetti are important articles in the diet of the Italians. A considerable portion of the milk consumed by textile operatives is measured from cans, and this loose milk is generally sold at 7 cents and the bottled at 8 cents per quart, but even with fresh milk at 7 cents a quart many families in Lawrence are unable to afford fresh milk and depend entirely upon condensed or evaporated milk.

Owing largely, no doubt, to the fact that so many of the women are wage-earners and, therefore, have no time for sewing, the proportion of women's clothing sold ready-made is very considerable. The usual dress sold to mill workers is a jacket suit, or odd skirt with a shirt waist, or a wash dress of some cotton material such as gingham or percale. For a suit \$10 to \$12 is usually paid, for a skirt from \$2 to \$5, and for a cotton dress about \$3. The hats most commonly bought by the women cost from 50 cents to \$3. Italian women, however, wear scarfs instead of hats.

and for these they pay from 25 cents to \$1. The men ordinarily pay about \$15 for a suit of clothes and buy an additional pair of trousers for about \$2 before the rest of the suit is worn out. Instead of overcoats, sweaters are worn under the ordinary suit coat, and for these from \$1 to \$7 is paid.

Fuel is of necessity bought in small quantities by a large proportion of Lawrence households because there is, as a rule, in the older tenements very limited space for storing coal or wood. In some cases a corner of a hallway at the head of the stairway is roughly boarded up for a foot or two, but more commonly both coal and kindling are bought in small quantities and used from the container. In many of the newer tenement houses provision has been made for the storage of coal and wood. The purchasing of fuel in small quantities adds very materially to the cost; thus for anthracite coal a consumer pays from 10 to 13 cents for a 20-pound bag, which is at the rate of \$10 to \$13 for a ton of 2,000 pounds, or an increase of from 40 to 80 per cent over the price if purchased by the ton.

Furniture is usually purchased on the installment plan with a small cash payment down and payment of from \$1 to \$1.50 per week.

9. GENERAL STATISTICS.

The total population of Lawrence, according to the United States census of 1910, was 85,892, and of that number, 73,928, or 86 per cent, were either of foreign birth or of foreign parentage and 11,964, or 14 per cent, were of native parentage.¹ Of the total population, 51.8 per cent were native born and 48.2 per cent were foreign born. Of the 41,375 foreign-born persons, 7,696 were born in Canada (French); 6,693 in Italy; 5,943 in Ireland; 5,659 in England; and 4,352 in Russia.

The general death rate in Lawrence per 1,000 population of all ages in 1910 was 17.7. From the reports of the United States Census Office it is possible to compare Lawrence with 34 other cities. The death rate in Lawrence was lower than the death rate in 6 of the 34 cities, exactly the same as in 2 other cities, and higher than in 26 other cities included in the comparison. The cities which had a higher general death rate than Lawrence were Lowell, Mass., 19.7; Washington, D.C., 19.6; Portland, Me., 18.8; New Bedford, Mass., 18.6; Fall River, Mass., 18.4; and Pittsburgh, Pa., 17.9. Three of these six cities which had a higher death rate are distinctly textile cities, and one of the six is Washington with a large Negro population.

¹ The census does not report birthplace of parents of Negroes and the 265 native-born Negroes in Lawrence have in this statement been included with the 11,964 of native parentage.

The infant mortality in Lawrence, as in other textile cities, is very high. This high infant mortality is a marked characteristic of most of the large, distinctly textile cities, both in the United States and in England. In 1909, the last year for which final figures are available, the reports of the United States Census Office show that for every 1,000 births in Lawrence there were 172 deaths of infants under 1 year of age. It is possible to compare Lawrence in this respect with 34 other cities. The infant death rate in Lawrence was lower than in 6 other cities and higher than in 28 other cities included in the comparison. The cities which showed a higher infant death rate than Lawrence were Manchester, N. H., 263; Holyoke, Mass., 231; Fall River, Mass., 186; Lowell, Mass., 185; Detroit, Mich., 176; and Pawtucket, R. I., 173. All of these, with the exception of Holyoke, Mass., and Detroit, Mich., are distinctly textile cities. It must be remembered, however, that a comparison of infant death rates between cities of the United States can not much more than suggest the true situation. This results from the admittedly imperfect registration, especially of births, but probably to a less degree of deaths also, even in the registration cities of the United States included in this table.

Under the Massachusetts law no child under the age of 14 years and no child who is over 14 and under 16 years of age, who does not have a certificate certifying to the child's ability to read at sight and to write legibly simple sentences in the English language, shall be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment. Approximately one-half of all persons in Lawrence 14 and under 18 years of age are employed in the textile mills. During 1911, 400 pupils withdrew from the grammar grades of the Lawrence public schools; 70 per cent of these 400 pupils left school for the purpose of going to work. . . .

SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE BY MASSACHUSETTS BUREAU OF STATISTICS.—During the strike appeals were made and issued to the public for contributions to the strike committee or its executive officers for the support of such of the strikers and their families as were in need, suffering, and want. Acting upon the belief that the contributions were being used for other than relief purposes, an injunction was asked for by the Attorney-General (James M. Prendergast, Herbert S. Johnson, and Robert A. Woods, Relators) on March 11, 1912, against the withdrawal of funds from the Lawrence Trust Company except for relief purposes, against the use of funds except for relief purposes, for the appointment of a receiver, that an account be taken, and that the defendants (Joseph Bedard, William D. Haywood, William Trautman, Joseph J. Ettor, William Yates, and Lawrence Trust Company) account for and restore such amounts as had been wrongfully taken from the fund. A temporary injunction was granted and the matter referred to a Master, who reported, among other things, that the fund was being used to pay for agitation and propagating the I. W. W., legal expenses, sending the children away, board for Ettor and Giovannitti in jail, bonds for workers, etc.; that all of the defendants were responsible for so keeping the books of account that it was impossible to distinguish for what purposes the amounts were contributed. Judge Loring of the Supreme Judicial Court for Suffolk County, in his finding made October 11, 1913, ordered defendants Joseph Bedard, William Trautman, and Joseph Shaheen to account for the sum of \$15,379.55 which was found to have been paid out of strike funds for purposes other than relief; also that William Yates account for the sum of \$5,800 paid out of strike funds and not accounted for. The defendants were ordered to pay into the hands of the Clerk of the Supreme Court, to be held by him subject to the further order and direction of the Supreme Court, said sums, together with interest thereon from the date of the filing of the bill in this case until the final payment. The bill was dismissed as against the defendants Ettor, Haywood, and Lawrence Trust Company.

On September 30, 1912, demonstration strikes were called in several localities in protest against the imprisonment of Ettor and Giovannitti. The trial of Ettor, Giovannitti, and Caruso, another leader indicted with them, began early in October in the Superior Court of Essex County. They were acquitted by a jury on November 25, 1912.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

TABLE 1.—Number of Strikes, Establishments Involved, Strikers, Non-strikers Thrown out of Work, and Working Days Lost, 1881–1912.¹

YEARS.	Strikes	Establishments	EMPLOYEES INVOLVED			Working Days Lost ²
			Strikers	Non-strikers	Total Rendered Idle	
1881,	15	35	1,538	806	2,344	-
1882,	26	78	4,781	7,455	12,239	-
1883,	27	45	2,629	1,866	4,495	-
1884,	40	48	3,167	8,563	11,730	-
1885,	53	109	7,103	15,358	22,461	-
1886,	151	836	33,274	10,688	43,962	-
1887,	142	456	20,045	10,842	30,857	-
1888,	100	172	7,725	5,922	13,647	-
1889,	130	288	17,244	11,404	28,648	-
1890,	158	566	15,542	4,523	20,063	-
1891,	145	244	9,611	2,272	11,883	-
1892,	162	585	14,926	3,031	17,957	-
1893,	175	383	8,253	5,267	13,520	-
1894,	131	294	44,245	15,534	59,779	-
1895,	74	223	12,241	3,522	15,763	-
1896,	46	98	3,271	3,336	6,607	-
1897,	65	167	6,529	2,695	9,224	-
1898,	43	90	20,547	9,404	29,951	-
1899,	77	409	8,401	4,210	12,611	-
1900,	79	512	12,024	4,524	16,548	-
1901,	258	954	22,224	4,990	27,214	-
1902,	245	1,733	28,659	12,653	41,312	-
1903,	255	986	38,570	11,315	49,885	1,514,136
1904,	202	1,050	42,843	4,956	47,799	4,044,146
1905,	201	536	10,429	5,436	15,565	161,355
1906,	213	699	17,320	9,418	26,738	372,672
1907,	236	440	16,479	11,186	27,665	452,912
1908,	98	473	8,007	14,539	22,546	325,015
1909,	183	477	12,456	9,107	21,563	228,363
1910,	242	541	13,439	13,737	27,176	312,674
1911,	222	491	9,768	6,742	16,510	233,806
1912,	294	680	48,007	46,546	94,553	2,313,466
Totals,	4,488	14,698	521,297	281,850	803,147	29,958,545

¹ The statistics for the years 1881 to 1902 were compiled from the tabulation sheets of the United States Bureau of Labor.² The total in this column is only for the years 1903–1912.

TABLE 2.—Number of Strikes, Establishments Involved, Strikers, Non-strikers Thrown out of Work, and Working Days Lost: By Industries.

INDUSTRIES.	Strikes	Establishments	EMPLOYEES INVOLVED			Working Days Lost
			Strikers	Non-strikers	Total Rendered Idle	
ALL INDUSTRIES.	294	680	48,007	46,546	94,553	2,313,466
Manufacturing.	198	407	37,842	45,553	83,395	2,209,870
Textiles.	88	143	29,785	39,294	69,079	2,005,040
Cotton goods,	51	93	17,500	24,951	42,451	1,203,810
Woolen and worsted goods,	32	45	12,122	13,493	25,615	796,730
Dyeing and finishing textiles,	4	4	155	850	1,005	4,492
Flax, hemp, and jute goods,	1	1	8	—	8	8
Leather and Leather Goods.	52	141	4,046	5,108	9,154	137,214
Boots and shoes,	46	135	3,624	5,058	8,682	129,640
Leather, tanned, curried, etc.,	6	6	422	50	472	7,574
Metals, Machinery, and Shipbuilding.	23	40	1,833	610	2,443	29,897
Iron and steel products,	16	32	1,411	610	2,021	24,255
Miscellaneous metal products,	6	7	342	—	342	3,662
Shipbuilding,	1	1	80	—	80	2,080
Food, Liquors, and Tobacco.	1	18	50	—	50	1,500
Liquors and beverages,	1	18	50	—	50	1,500
Printing and Allied Trades.	2	5	29	—	29	85
Clothing.	10	17	556	303	859	11,982
Clothing, women's,	5	12	209	253	462	10,463
Hats and caps,	4	4	320	50	370	1,387
Corsets,	1	1	27	—	27	132
Paper and Paper Goods.	6	10	495	103	598	8,077
Rubber and Gutta Percha Goods.	4	4	122	—	122	607
Furniture and Woodworking.	5	16	635	85	720	10,501
Saw-mill and planing-mill products,	3	9	271	85	356	2,020
Wood turning and carving,	2	7	364	—	364	8,451
Chemicals and Allied Products.	4	4	135	—	135	733
Stone, Glass, and Clay Products.	3	9	156	50	206	4,134
Building.	60	160	3,034	645	3,679	53,289
Building Trades.	52	151	2,566	610	3,176	49,615
Unskilled Building Labor.	8	9	468	35	503	3,674
Transportation.	16	42	5,807	231	6,038	38,741
Railroad,	6	6	534	50	584	2,756
Road, street, and bridge,	4	4	2,268	20	2,288	20,759
Water,	6	32	3,005	161	3,166	15,226
Trade.	6	24	355	3	358	2,218
Wholesale and retail,	5	23	305	3	308	2,168
Warehouses and cold storage,	1	1	50	—	50	50
Public Service.	2	2	27	—	27	74
State,	1	1	20	—	20	60
Municipal,	1	1	7	—	7	14
Professional Service.	2	6	12	11	23	226
Domestic and Personal Service.	7	32	801	81	882	4,852
Miscellaneous Occupations.	6	31	791	81	872	4,842
Laundry and Laundry Work.	1	1	10	—	10	10
Minerals.	3	7	129	22	151	4,196
Quarrying,	3	7	129	22	151	4,196

TABLE 3.—Number of Strikes, Establishments Involved, Strikers, Non-strikers Thrown out of Work, and Working Days Lost: By Municipalities.¹

MUNICIPALITIES.	Strikes	Establishments	EMPLOYEES INVOLVED			Working Days Lost
			Strikers	Non-strikers	Total Rendered Idle	
The State.	294	680	48,007	46,546	94,553	2,313,466
Abington,	1	1	75	12	87	696
Adams,	2	2	1,066	1,378	2,444	42,011
Amesbury,	1	1	70	-	70	420
Ayer,	1	1	8	-	8	72
Barre,	1	2	632	30	662	6,500
BEVERLY,	1	2	144	30	174	1,700
Billerica,	5	5	300	-	300	1,655
BOSTON,	54	147	9,059	1,613	10,672	122,386
Bridgewater,	2	2	444	431	875	22,076
BROCKTON,	2	3	82	-	82	1,933
Brookline,	-	5	52	-	52	391
CAMBRIDGE,	2	5	398	-	398	9,909
Chelmsford,	1	1	60	16	76	376
CHELSEA,	-	1	8	6	14	196
CHICopee,	2	2	48	12	60	324
Clinton,	3	3	829	2,678	3,507	108,876
Dudley,	1	1	25	-	25	50
Easthampton,	1	3	11	-	11	188
EVERETT,	-	1	3	-	3	30
FALL RIVER,	29	59	2,771	1,530	4,301	30,894
FITCHBURG,	2	2	130	50	180	2,825
GLoucester,	1	6	49	-	49	110
HAVERHILL,	15	74	1,365	944	2,309	48,517
HOLYOKE,	9	14	325	12	337	4,046
Hopkinton,	1	3	68	-	68	1,536
Hudson,	5	5	281	200	481	5,890
LAWRENCE,	17	35	10,143	13,755	23,898	764,337
Lenox,	1	1	20	-	20	60
LOWELL,	12	37	7,915	8,377	16,292	352,049
Ludlow,	2	2	105	50	155	205
LYNN,	28	75	1,797	2,430	4,227	47,078
MALDEN,	1	1	30	30	60	210
Marblehead,	1	1	50	-	50	700
Milford,	4	6	97	22	119	2,744
MONSON,	1	1	32	-	32	64
NEW BEDFORD,	11	27	5,126	8,996	14,122	640,202
NEWBURYPORT,	1	2	17	-	17	103
Newton,	3	3	812	300	1,112	8,959
NORTH ADAMS,	6	6	388	1,057	1,445	7,748
NORTHAMPTON,	-	1	4	-	4	40
Northbridge,	1	1	75	-	75	150
Norton,	1	1	108	6	114	450
Palmer,	1	1	100	-	100	100
PITTSFIELD,	8	16	309	18	327	2,902
QUINCY,	1	3	185	-	185	4,045
Rockland,	1	1	15	-	15	30
Russell,	1	1	53	91	144	1,228
SALEM,	4	12	239	515	754	11,524
Southbridge,	2	2	28	-	28	44
SPRINGFIELD,	2	2	44	-	44	321
Stoughton,	1	1	27	-	27	189
Sutton,	1	1	52	14	66	198
Swampscott,	1	1	45	-	45	180
TAUNTON,	1	1	100	400	500	1,500
Uxbridge,	3	3	101	26	127	472
WALTHAM,	3	3	76	-	76	153
Warren,	3	3	239	701	940	24,800
Watertown,	1	2	27	-	27	495
Webster,	3	3	86	707	793	8,868
Wellesley,	1	1	28	-	28	56
West Springfield,	2	2	43	20	63	209
Westford,	1	1	6	-	6	49
Weymouth,	1	1	34	-	34	204
Winchester,	1	2	185	25	210	2,582
WORCESTER,	9	55	841	63	904	14,461
Other municipalities,	10	10	122	1	123	150

¹ General strikes involving more than one city or town have been tabulated under the locality most affected, but statistics of establishments, strikers, non-strikers thrown out of work, and working days lost have been tabulated under the municipality in which the establishments were located.

TABLE 4.—Number and Percentage of Strikes and Strikers Involved in Strikes Ordered by Labor Organizations and in Strikes not so Ordered: By Industries.

INDUSTRIES.	STRIKES				STRIKERS IN STRIKES			
	ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS		NOT ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS		ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS		NOT ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS	
	Num- ber	Percent- ages	Num- ber	Percent- ages	Num- ber	Percent- ages	Num- ber	Percent- ages
ALL INDUSTRIES.	130	44.5	162	55.5	28,233	59.0	19,651	41.0
Manufacturing.	67	34.2	129	65.8	19,731	52.3	17,988	47.7
Textiles.	15	17.2	72	82.8	14,736	49.6	14,976	50.4
Cotton goods,	9	17.6	42	82.4	13,259	75.8	4,241	24.2
Woolen and worsted goods,	5	15.6	27	84.4	1,457	12.0	10,665	58.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles,	1	33.3	2	66.7	20	24.4	62	75.6
Flax, hemp, and jute goods,	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	8	100.0
Leather and Leather Goods.	30	58.8	21	41.2	3,157	79.0	839	21.0
Boots and shoes,	28	62.2	17	37.8	2,867	80.2	707	19.8
Leather, tanned, curried, etc.,	2	33.3	4	66.7	290	68.7	132	31.3
Metals, Machinery, and Shipbuilding.	11	47.8	12	52.2	1,089	59.4	744	40.6
Iron and steel products,	7	43.8	9	56.2	851	60.3	560	39.7
Miscellaneous metal products,	2	50.0	3	50.0	158	46.2	184	53.8
Shipbuilding,	1	100.0	-	-	80	100.0	-	-
Food, Liquors, and Tobacco.	1	100.0	-	-	50	100.0	-	-
Liquors and beverages,	1	100.0	-	-	50	100.0	-	-
Printing and Allied Trades.	1	50.0	1	50.0	26	89.7	3	10.3
Clothing.	7	70.0	3	30.0	509	91.5	47	8.5
Clothing, women's,	5	100.0	-	-	209	100.0	-	-
Hats and caps,	2	50.0	2	50.0	300	93.8	20	6.2
Corsets,	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	27	100.0
Paper and Paper Goods.	-	-	6	100.0	-	-	495	100.0
Rubber and Gutta Percha Goods.	-	-	4	100.0	-	-	122	100.0
Furniture and Woodworking.	1	20.0	4	80.0	64	10.1	571	89.9
Saw-mill and planing mill products,	-	-	3	100.0	-	-	271	100.0
Wood turning and carving,	1	50.0	1	50.0	64	17.6	300	82.4
Chemicals and Allied Products.	-	-	4	100.0	-	-	135	100.0
Stone, Glass, and Clay Products.	1	33.3	2	66.7	100	64.1	56	35.9
Building.	49	81.7	11	18.3	2,523	83.2	511	16.8
Building Trades.	47	90.4	5	9.6	2,447	95.4	119	4.6
Unskilled Building Labor.	2	25.0	6	75.0	76	16.2	392	83.8
Transportation.	4	25.0	12	75.0	4,950	85.2	857	14.8
Railroad,	-	-	6	100.0	-	-	534	100.0
Road, street, and bridge,	1	25.0	3	75.0	2,200	97.0	68	3.0
Water,	3	50.0	3	50.0	2,750	91.5	255	8.5
Trade.	2	33.3	4	66.7	163	45.9	192	54.1
Wholesale and retail,	2	40.0	3	60.0	163	53.4	142	46.6
Warehouses and cold storage,	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	50	100.0
Public Service.	-	-	2	100.0	-	-	27	100.0
State,	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	20	100.0
Municipal,	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	7	100.0
Professional Service.	2	100.0	-	-	12	100.0	-	-
Domestic and Personal Service.	4	57.1	3	42.9	777	97.0	24	3.0
Miscellaneous Occupations.	4	66.7	2	33.3	777	98.2	14	1.8
Laundry and Laundry Work.	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	10	100.0
Minerals.	2	66.7	1	33.3	77	59.7	52	40.3
Quarrying,	2	66.7	1	33.3	77	59.7	52	40.3

TABLE 5.—Number and Percentages of Female Strikers: By Industries.

INDUSTRIES.	Number	Percent-ages	INDUSTRIES.	Number	Percent-ages
ALL INDUSTRIES.	12,826	26.7	Manufacturing—Con.		
Manufacturing.	12,808	33.8	<i>Printing and Allied Trades.</i>	1	3.4
<i>Textiles.</i>	<i>11,561</i>	<i>38.8</i>	<i>Clothing.</i>	<i>152</i>	<i>27.3</i>
Cotton goods,	7,153	40.9	Clothing, women's,	73	34.9
Woolen and worsted goods,	4,361	36.0	Hats and caps,	52	16.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles,	47	30.3	Corsets,	27	100.0
<i>Leather and Leather Goods.</i>	<i>833</i>	<i>20.5</i>	<i>Paper and Paper Goods.</i>	<i>223</i>	<i>45.1</i>
Boots and shoes,	805	22.2	<i>Rubber and Gutta Percha Goods.</i>	<i>34</i>	<i>27.9</i>
Leather, tanned, curried, etc.,	28	6.6	Domestic and Personal Service.	18	2.2
<i>Metals, Machinery, and Ship-building.</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>0.2</i>			
Iron and steel products,	4	0.3			

TABLE 6.—Number of Strikes Classified by Number of Strikers and Total Number of Employees Affected.

NUMBER OF STRIKERS.	Number of Strikes	TOTAL NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AFFECTED.		Number of Strikes
		Total.	Total.	
Total.	294			294
Less than 26,	115	Less than 26,		99
26 to 50,	67	26 to 50,		61
51 to 100,	54	51 to 100,		49
101 to 200,	25	101 to 200,		25
201 to 300,	10	201 to 300,		17
301 to 400,	3	301 to 400,		6
401 to 500,	6	401 to 500,		8
501 to 600,	1	501 to 600,		7
601 to 700,	2	601 to 700,		4
701 to 800,	5	701 to 800,		5
1,001 to 1,100,	1	801 to 900,		2
2,101 to 2,200,	1	901 to 1,000,		1
2,201 to 2,300,	1	1,101 to 1,200,		1
4,701 to 4,800,	1	1,201 to 1,300,		1
5,901 to 6,000,	1	1,301 to 1,400,		1
8,401 to 8,500,	1	2,001 to 2,100,		1
		2,101 to 2,200,		2
		2,201 to 2,300,		1
		13,643,		1
		14,049,		1
		21,190,		1

TABLE 7. — Number and Percentage of Strikes Due Wholly or Partly to Specified Causes.

NOTE.—This table shows statistics for strikes due not only to one cause but also for strikes in which there was more than one cause. Strikes resulting from two or more causes have been counted under each of those causes contributing to the strike;—thus, for example, strikes for increase in wages and reduction in hours have been included in the cause "for increase in wages" and also in the cause "for reduction in hours," as such strikes were due in part to both of these causes. In the totals for each class of causes which are printed in full-face type, as, for example, under "Wages," a strike "for increase in wages" and "for change in system of payment" is included only once in the totals for "Wages." In view of this explanation it may be noted that the figures in heavy type while representing totals are not necessarily the sum of the figures under the respective sub-headings. The figures shown for all causes are the actual numbers obtained by counting each strike, striker, and establishment but once, and form the basis upon which the percentages were computed.

CAUSES.	STRIKES		ESTABLISHMENTS		STRIKERS	
	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages	Number	Percentages
ALL CAUSES.	294	100.0	680	100.0	48,007	100.0
Wages.	177	60.2	465	68.4	31,724	66.1
For increase,	157	53.4	436	64.1	22,664	47.2
Against decrease,	13	4.4	22	3.2	8,871	18.7
System of payment,	6	2.0	1	1.0	326	0.7
Readjustment of rates,	2	0.7	2	0.3	54	0.1
Other wage questions,	3	1.0	3	0.4	93	0.2
Hours of Labor.	44	15.0	217	31.9	4,477	9.3
For decrease,	42	14.3	215	31.6	4,149	8.6
Other,	2	0.7	2	0.3	328	0.7
Employment of Particular Classes or Persons.	39	13.3	39	5.7	3,719	7.7
Against employment of women instead of men,	2	0.7	2	0.3	28	0.1
For reinstatement of discharged employees,	21	7.1	21	3.1	2,888	6.0
Against employment of certain officials,	11	3.7	11	1.6	667	1.4
Other employment questions,	7	2.4	7	1.0	338	0.7
Working Conditions.	27	9.2	58	8.5	14,284	29.8
For change in existing arrangements,	18	6.1	37	5.4	8,420	17.5
Against change in existing arrangements,	4	1.4	5	0.7	275	0.6
Other,	5	1.7	16	2.4	5,589	11.6
Trade Unionism.	96	32.7	186	27.4	9,537	19.9
For closed shop,	44	15.0	88	12.9	4,759	10.0
Disputes regarding matters of trade jurisdiction,	4	1.4	6	0.9	148	0.3
For recognition of union,	33	11.2	63	9.3	3,829	8.0
Apprentice rules,	2	0.7	16	2.4	224	0.5
Other,	17	5.8	38	5.6	1,450	3.0
Sympathy.	4	1.4	4	0.6	666	1.4
Miscellaneous.	1	0.3	1	0.1	11	0.0

1 0.02 per cent.

TABLE 8.—Number of Strikers by Sex and Number of Working Days Lost by Strikers in Strikes Due Wholly or Partly to Specified Cause, Ordered by Labor Organizations and not so Ordered.¹

CAUSES.	ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS				NOT ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS			
	Working Days Lost by Strikers	STRIKERS			Working Days Lost by Strikers	STRIKERS		
		Males	Females	Both Sexes		Males	Females	Both Sexes
ALL CAUSES.	907,912	21,833	6,400	28,233	551,879	13,234	6,417	19,651
Wages.	295,334	13,401	3,484	16,885	416,510	9,804	4,962	14,766
For increase,	294,634	13,351	3,454	16,835	36,552	4,295	1,461	5,756
Against decrease,	-	-	-	-	379,600	5,406	3,465	8,571
System of payment,	-	-	-	-	3,512	77	249	326
Readjustment of rates,	700	50	-	50	4	-	4	4
Other wage questions,	93	31	-	31	112	62	-	62
Hours of Labor.	57,708	3,194	235	3,429	8,654	1,016	32	1,048
For decrease,	57,708	3,194	235	3,429	5,298	688	32	720
Other,	-	-	-	-	3,356	328	-	328
Employment of Particular Classes or Persons.	39,662	1,029	468	1,497	53,902	1,382	840	2,322
Against employment of women instead of men,	292	28	-	28	-	-	-	-
For reinstatement of discharged employees,	37,943	924	468	1,392	50,111	974	522	1,496
Against employment of certain officials,	32	32	-	32	14,338	363	272	635
Other employment questions,	1,419	57	-	57	991	145	136	281
Working Conditions.	369,889	7,987	4,047	12,034	41,434	1,125	1,125	2,250
For change in existing arrangements,	140,090	5,035	2,152	7,187	3,256	601	632	1,233
Against change in existing arrangements,	-	-	-	-	3,074	131	144	275
Other,	229,799	2,952	1,895	4,847	35,104	393	349	742
Trade Unionism.	123,806	6,867	1,033	7,900	12,940	1,523	64	1,587
For closed shop,	55,630	2,491	918	3,409	12,545	1,316	64	1,389
Disputes regarding matters of trade jurisdiction,	589	136	-	136	18	12	-	12
For recognition of union,	43,556	3,729	100	3,829	-	-	-	-
Apprentice rules,	12,275	224	-	224	-	-	-	-
Other,	23,236	1,115	90	1,205	74	195	-	195
Sympathy.	4,616	164	283	447	3,565	215	4	219
Miscellaneous.	-	-	-	-	66	9	2	11

¹ See Note to Table 7 on page 46.

TABLE 9.—Number of Establishments and Strikers Involved in Strikes Ordered by Labor Organizations and not so Ordered: By Duration.

DURATION. (In Working Days.)	ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS		NOT ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS		TOTALS	
	Establishments	Strikers	Establishments	Strikers	Establishments	Strikers
Strikes and Lockouts.	489	28,233	189	19,651	680	48,007
<i>Strikes.</i>						
Less than 1 day,	489	28,233	189	19,651	678	47,884
1 day,	15	343	1	175	16	518
2 days,	38	451	32	1,105	70	1,556
3 days,	25	650	38	2,467	63	3,117
4 days,	25	533	23	636	48	1,169
5 days,	24	554	17	1,317	41	1,871
6 days,	13	370	5	289	18	659
7 days,	21	285	13	612	34	907
Less than 7 days,	161	8,196	129	6,801	290	9,797
From 7 to 12 days,	81	2,459	28	2,298	109	4,757
From 13 to 18 days,	44	1,234	6	370	50	1,604
From 19 to 24 days,	45	8,459	5	336	50	8,795
From 25 to 30 days,	44	1,136	4	346	48	1,482
From 31 to 36 days,	30	2,461	3	121	33	2,582
From 37 to 42 days,	25	537	—	—	25	537
From 43 to 48 days,	5	156	3	1,342	8	1,498
From 49 to 54 days,	14	753	3	2,528	17	3,281
From 55 to 60 days,	20	6,860	3	3,869	23	10,729
From 61 to 66 days,	8	151	2	1,300	10	1,451
From 67 to 72 days,	6	294	—	—	6	294
From 73 to 78 days,	1	439	2	350	3	789
From 79 to 84 days,	—	—	1	190	1	190
From 85 to 90 days,	1	50	—	—	1	50
From 163 to 168 days,	4	48	—	—	4	48
<i>Lockouts.</i>	—	—	—	—	2	123
6 days,	—	—	—	—	2	123

TABLE 10.—Results of Strikes: By Number of Strikers.

NUMBER OF STRIKERS.	Total Number of Establishments	PERCENTAGES OF ESTABLISHMENTS IN WHICH STRIKERS WERE —			
		Successful	Partly Successful	Successful and Partly Successful	Unsuccessful
Totals.	680	29.8	31.2	61.0	39.0
Less than 26,	437	31.8	33.9	65.7	34.3
26 to 50,	109	37.6	17.4	55.0	45.0
51 to 100,	57	24.6	26.3	50.9	49.1
101 to 200,	31	12.9	38.7	51.6	48.4
201 to 300,	11	18.2	27.3	45.5	54.5
301 to 400,	5	—	60.0	60.0	40.0
401 to 500,	9	—	11.1	11.1	88.9
501 to 600,	4	—	75.0	75.0	25.0
601 to 700,	5	40.0	20.0	60.0	40.0
701 to 800,	6	—	50.0	50.0	50.0
1,001 to 2,000,	2	—	50.0	50.0	50.0
2,001 to 3,000,	4	25.0	75.0	100.0	—

TABLE 11.—Results Obtained by Strikers in Strikes Ordered by Labor Organizations and not so Ordered: By Industries.

INDUSTRIES.	Number of Strikers	ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS			NOT ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS		
		PERCENTAGES OF STRIKERS WHO —			Number of Strikers	PERCENTAGES OF STRIKERS WHO —	
		Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded	Failed		Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded
ALL INDUSTRIES.	28,233	19.3	33.4	47.3	19,651	58.2	14.7
Manufacturing.	19,731	9.1	43.5	47.4	17,988	62.7	13.4
Textiles.	14,736	1.1	46.5	52.4	14,976	70.9	7.8
Cotton goods,	13,259	0.7	46.1	53.2	4,241	32.0	24.3
Woolen and worsted goods,	1,457	4.3	49.4	46.3	10,665	86.8	0.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles,	20	—	100.0	—	62	11.3	12.4
Flax, hemp, and jute goods,	—	—	—	—	8	88.7	—
						—	100.0
Leather and Leather Goods.	3,157	34.8	32.5	32.7	839	34.9	36.5
Boots and shoes,	2,867	38.3	27.8	33.9	707	27.3	43.3
Leather, tanned, curried, etc.,	290	—	79.7	20.3	132	75.8	—
						—	24.2
Metals, Machinery, and Shipbuilding.	1,089	22.9	33.8	43.3	744	16.4	61.2
Iron and steel products,	851	19.9	39.9	40.2	560	12.8	63.6
Miscellaneous metal products,	158	—	17.7	82.3	184	27.2	53.8
Shipbuilding,	80	100.0	—	—	—	—	—
Food, Liquors, and Tobacco.	50	—	96.0	4.0	—	—	—
Liquors and beverages,	50	—	96.0	4.0	—	—	—
Printing and Allied Trades.	26	—	92.3	7.7	3	—	100.0
Clothing.	509	35.4	39.7	24.9	47	42.6	—
Clothing, women's,	209	14.3	24.9	60.8	—	—	—
Hats and caps,	300	50.0	50.0	—	20	100.0	—
Corsets,	—	—	—	—	27	—	100.0
Paper and Paper Goods.	—	—	—	—	495	—	62.0
Rubber and Gutta Percha Goods.	—	—	—	—	122	—	21.3
Furniture and Woodworking.	64	—	100.0	—	571	27.9	7.5
Saw-mill and planing-mill products,	—	—	—	—	271	58.7	15.9
Wood turning and carving,	64	—	100.0	—	300	—	100.0
Chemicals and Allied Products.	—	—	—	—	135	34.8	65.2
Stone, Glass, and Clay Products.	100	100.0	—	—	56	50.0	—
Building.	2,523	50.3	14.0	35.7	511	2.3	29.4
Building Trades.	2,447	50.8	14.5	34.7	119	10.1	—
Building Labor.	76	34.2	—	65.8	392	—	38.3
Transportation.	4,950	46.6	—	53.4	857	2.3	39.8
Railroad,	—	—	—	—	534	—	63.9
Road, street, and bridge,	2,200	100.0	—	—	68	—	100.0
Water,	2,750	3.9	—	96.1	255	7.8	—
Trade.	163	37.4	62.6	—	192	65.6	—
Wholesale and retail,	163	37.4	62.6	—	142	88.7	—
Warehouses and cold storage,	—	—	—	—	50	—	100.0
Public Service.	—	—	—	—	27	—	—
State,	—	—	—	—	20	—	—
Municipal,	—	—	—	—	7	—	—
Professional Service.	12	—	75.0	25.0	—	—	—
Domestic and Personal Service.	777	1.7	39.6	58.7	24	—	—
Miscellaneous Occupations.	777	1.7	39.6	58.7	14	—	—
Laundry and Laundry Work.	—	—	—	—	10	—	—
Minerals.	77	—	100.0	—	52	—	—
Quarrying,	77	—	100.0	—	52	—	—
						—	100.0

TABLE 12.—*Results of Strikes Due Wholly or Partly to Specified Cause.*¹

CAUSES.	Number of Establishments	PERCENTAGES OF ESTABLISHMENTS IN WHICH STRIKERS —			Number of Strikers	PERCENTAGES OF STRIKERS WHO —		
		Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed		Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed
ALL CAUSES.	680	29.8	31.2	39.0	48,007	35.2	25.7	39.1
Wages.	465	33.6	31.8	34.6	31,724	40.5	31.8	27.7
For increase,	436	32.6	33.7	33.7	22,664	19.1	44.2	36.7
Against decrease,	22	45.5	9.0	45.5	8,871	94.7	1.3	4.0
System of payment,	7	14.3	—	85.7	326	6.4	—	93.6
Readjustment of rates,	2	100.0	—	—	54	100.0	—	—
Other wage questions,	3	33.3	33.3	33.3	93	53.8	33.3	12.9
Hours of Labor.	217	53.9	20.3	25.8	4,477	50.3	15.3	34.4
For decrease,	215	54.4	20.5	25.1	4,149	54.3	16.5	29.2
Other,	2	—	—	100.0	328	—	—	100.0
Employment of Particular Classes or Persons.	39	25.6	2.6	71.8	3,719	14.1	0.5	85.4
Against employment of women instead of men,	2	50.0	—	50.0	28	85.7	—	14.3
For reinstatement of discharged employees,	21	19.0	—	81.0	2,888	10.8	—	89.2
Against employment of certain officials,	11	27.3	9.1	63.6	667	18.6	3.0	78.4
Other employment questions,	7	28.6	—	71.4	338	19.2	—	80.8
Working Conditions.	58	22.4	6.9	70.7	14,284	3.7	7.8	88.5
For change in existing arrangements,	37	32.4	10.8	56.8	8,420	6.2	13.1	80.7
Against change in existing arrangements,	5	20.0	—	80.0	275	5.1	—	94.9
Other,	16	—	—	100.0	5,589	—	—	100.0
Trade Unionism.	186	29.0	2.7	68.3	9,537	48.0	2.0	50.0
For closed shop,	88	37.5	—	62.5	4,789	32.6	—	67.4
Disputes regarding matters of trade jurisdiction,	6	83.3	—	16.7	148	96.6	—	3.4
For recognition of union,	63	12.7	—	87.3	3,829	70.8	—	29.2
Apprentice rules,	16	12.5	—	87.5	224	10.7	—	89.3
Other,	38	31.6	13.1	55.3	1,450	34.4	13.0	52.6
Sympathy.	4	50.0	25.0	25.0	666	3.3	32.9	63.8
Miscellaneous.	1	100.0	—	—	11	100.0	—	—

¹ See Note to Table 7 on page 46.

TABLE 13.—Number of Establishments and Strikers in Strikes Settled by the Different Methods: By Industries.

INDUSTRIES.	BY DIRECT NEGOTIATIONS		BY ARBITRA-TION		BY FILLING PLACES		OTHER METHODS	
	Estab-lish-ments	Strik-ers	Estab-lish-ments	Strik-ers	Estab-lish-ments	Strik-ers	Estab-lish-ments	Strik-ers
ALL INDUSTRIES.	452	28,277	2	2,340	149	4,577	77	12,813
Manufacturing.	275	22,498	1	140	77	2,957	54	12,247
Textiles.	88	17,312	—	—	21	1,051	34	11,422
Cotton goods,	56	7,927	—	—	14	404	23	9,169
Woolen and worsted goods,	28	9,230	—	—	6	639	11	2,253
Dyeing and finishing textiles,	4	155	—	—	—	—	—	—
Flax, hemp, and jute goods,	—	—	—	—	1	8	—	—
Leather and Leather Goods.	99	2,641	1	140	34	1,027	7	238
Boots and shoes,	96	2,292	1	140	31	954	7	238
Leather, tanned, curried, etc.,	3	349	—	—	3	73	—	—
Metals, Machinery, and Shipbuilding.	29	1,304	—	—	7	357	4	172
Iron and steel products,	23	1,012	—	—	5	227	4	172
Miscellaneous metal products,	5	212	—	—	2	130	—	—
Shipbuilding,	1	80	—	—	—	—	—	—
Food, Liquors, and Tobacco.	16	48	—	—	—	—	2	2
Liquors and beverages,	16	48	—	—	—	—	2	2
Printing and Allied Trades.	4	27	—	—	—	—	1	2
Clothing.	12	449	—	—	4	103	1	4
Clothing, women's,	9	138	—	—	2	67	1	4
Hats and caps,	3	311	—	—	1	9	—	—
Corsets,	—	—	—	—	1	27	—	—
Paper and Paper Goods.	4	232	—	—	5	252	1	11
Rubber and Gutta Percha Goods.	1	26	—	—	—	—	3	96
Furniture and Woodworking.	11	266	—	—	4	69	1	300
Saw mill and planing mill products,	5	202	—	—	4	69	—	—
Wood turning and carving,	6	64	—	—	—	—	1	300
Chemicals and Allied Products.	3	65	—	—	1	70	—	—
Stone, Glass, and Clay Products.	8	128	—	—	1	28	—	—
Building.	113	2,259	—	—	34	535	13	240
Building Trades.	110	2,033	—	—	29	310	12	223
Unskilled Building Labor.	3	326	—	—	5	225	1	17
Transportation.	24	2,772	1	2,200	12	535	5	300
Railroad,	1	341	—	—	4	143	1	50
Road, street, and bridge,	—	—	1	2,200	2	33	1	35
Water,	23	2,431	—	—	6	359	3	215
Trade.	22	289	—	—	1	50	1	16
Wholesale and retail,	22	289	—	—	—	—	1	16
Warehouses and cold storage,	—	—	—	—	1	50	—	—
Public Service.	—	—	—	—	2	27	—	—
State,	—	—	—	—	1	20	—	—
Municipal,	—	—	—	—	1	7	—	—
Professional Service.	3	9	—	—	3	3	—	—
Domestic and Personal Service.	8	321	—	—	20	470	4	10
Miscellaneous Occupations.	8	321	—	—	19	460	4	10
Laundry and Laundry Work.	—	—	—	—	1	10	—	—
Minerals.	7	129	—	—	—	—	—	—
Quarrying,	7	129	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
MANUFACTURING.							
Textiles.							
Cotton Goods.							
Weavers, warpers, and winders.	Abington, .	For increase of 10% in wages and for discharge of an assistant foreman.	No	No	1	75	12
Weavers, . . .	Adams, .	For discharge of four non-union operatives.	Yes	No	1	1,036	1,003
Quillers, . . .	Adams, .	For increase in piece-rates from \$0.985 to \$2.46 per chain of yarn.	No	No	1	30	375
Loomfixers, . . .	Clinton, .	For increase in wages from 23½ to 26 cents an hour. Spare fixers to be paid 23½ cents an hour.	Yes	No	1	94	2,043
Weavers, . . .	Clinton, .	For abolition of fining system and against alleged discrimination in employment of strike leader.	No	No	1	731	635
Twister tenders, . .	Fall River, .	Against reduction in earnings due to the taking effect of the 54-hour law.	No	No	1	97	440
Card strippers, . .	Fall River, .	Against reduction in earnings due to taking effect of 54-hour law.	No	No	1	5	-
Weavers and loomfixers,	Fall River, .	For standing pay. Because of shortage of employees in warp preparation department many looms were stopped thus causing a reduction in the earnings of weavers.	No	No	1	708	-
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For change in method of supplying weavers with filling for looms and for discharge of certain second hand whom strikers alleged taxed weavers for new shuttles used in operating their looms.	No	No	1	22	-
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages,	No	No	1	11	12
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For increase in piece-rates for certain style of goods.	No	No	1	10	-
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For increase in piece-rates for new style of goods.	No	No	1	30	-
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For increase in wages for certain grade of goods.	No	No	1	21	-
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For increase in wages for certain class of goods.	No	No	1	125	-
Operatives, . . .	Fall River, .	For increase of 10% in wages instead of an increase of 5% voluntarily granted by manufacturer to become effective March 25.	No	No	2	717	-
Stationary firemen,	Fall River, .	For flat rate of 22 cents an hour for day and night men.	Yes	Yes	25	77	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	8	696	-	75	-						
Aug. 5	Aug. 27	19	38,741	-	-	1,036	Employer granted 10% increase in wages but refused to discharge assistant foreman.	No				
Nov. 12	Nov. 22	9	3,270	30	-	-	Strikers returned to work without concessions.	No				
Mar. 21	Apr. 22	26	43,304	94	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations. Company agreed to pay \$2.46 per chain during a trial period of four months.	No				
May 1	Jun. 27	48	65,568	-	-	731	Strikers resumed work and increase in rates was made as demanded. Spare fixers were granted 24 cents an hour.	No				
Jan. 12	Jan. 31	16	8,592	-	-	97	Strikers returned to work without concessions.	No				
Jan. 13	Jan. 15	1	5	-	-	5	Settled by direct negotiations; strikers returned to work without concessions.	No				
Jan. 22	Jan. 24	2	1,416	-	708	-	Strikers returned to work on promise of company to improve conditions as soon as possible; matter was eventually compromised by some of the men laying off and by sections of looms being rearranged so as to make full sections.	-				
Jan. 25	Jan. 29	3	66	22	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations,	No				
Feb. 13	Feb. 15	2	40	-	11	-	Granted increase of 10% on certain grades of goods.	No				
Feb. 13	Feb. 14	1	10	-	-	10	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	-				
Feb. 15	Feb. 19	3	90	-	-	30	Majority of strikers returned to work without negotiations.	No				
Feb. 16	Feb. 19	2	42	-	21	-	Number of looms per weaver was reduced from four to two on particular style of goods in question.	-				
Mar. 14	Mar. 16	2	250	125	-	-	Ten % increase in wages granted, . .	No				
Mar. 26	Mar. 28	2	1,434	717	-	-	Demands of strikers were granted,	No				
Apr. 8	Apr. 9-22	8.6	291	-	54	23	Conference between union and manufacturer's association resulted in written agreement that if union would declare strike off executive committee of manufacturer's association would endeavor to adjust conditions as to wages and hours on a more satisfactory basis and that all complaints of firemen not settled with individual mills would be brought before said executive committee.	Yes				

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Textiles — Con.							
<i>Cotton Goods — Con.</i>							
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages,	No	Yes	1	134	159
Ring spinners, . . .	Fall River, .	For reinstatement of discharged overseer.	No	No	1	125	-
Weavers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages while alleged poor material was being used.	No	No	1	100	6
Ring spinners, . . .	Fall River, .	For use of better material or for increase in wages.	No	No	1	85	510
Weavers and loomfixers,	Fall River, .	Against employment of a loomfixer who had worked in another mill during a strike, said strike never having been declared off.	No	No	1	68	39
Loomfixers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages,	No	No	1	13	-
Loomfixers, . . .	Fall River, .	For an increase in weekly wages from \$12 to \$14.	No	No	1	23	240
Loomfixers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages,	No	No	1	12	50
Loomfixers, . . .	Fall River, .	For a standard wage per loom. Because of a shortage of warps and of weavers the product from the looms was diminished as was the wages of the fixers.	No	No	1	73	-
Loomfixers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages,	No	No	1	8	67
Carders, . . .	Fall River, .	For reinstatement of discharged overseer.	No	No	1	105	7
Loomfixers, . . .	Fall River, .	For 10% increase in wages,	Yes	No	1	21	-
Spool tenders, . . .	Fall River, .	Against change from day-work to piece-work.	No	No	1	32	-
Gassing frame tenders,	Fall River, .	Against change in system of work requiring each workman to tend a larger number of spindles than formerly.	No	No	1	14	-
Spool winders, . . .	Holyoke, .	Against reductions in earnings due to taking effect of 54-hour law.	No	No	1	34	-
Weavers and battery fillers.	Lawrence, .	For reinstatement of five discharged loom cleaners.	No	No	1	38	-
Weavers, . . .	Lowell, .	For 15% increase in wages.	No	No	1	75	24
Textile operatives, .	Lowell, .	For flat increase of 15% in wages for all employees in the mills instead of an increase averaging about 7½% granted voluntarily by the manufacturers to become effective March 25, and for the right of measuring and weighing cloth by the weaver who makes it.	Yes	Yes	7	5,909	8,140
Operatives, . . .	Lowell, .	For reinstatement of 35 Greeks who left their work because of a disagreement regarding overtime pay for noon-hour work in print house, where work needed continuous attention. A 20-minute interval for dinner was given to these operatives in turn.	Yes	No	1	800	200

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
May 6	Jun. 26	43	12,599	—	134	—	Ten % increase granted on certain grades, 5% granted on others. Employees returned to work without concessions.	No				
Jun. 3	Jun. 10	6	750	—	—	125	Employees returned to work without concessions.	No				
Jun. 6	Jun. 11	4	415	—	—	100	Employees returned to work without concessions.	No				
Jun. 10	Jun. 14	4	2,125	85	—	—	Granted slight compensation while poor material was being used or until old stock ran out.	No				
Jul. 24	Jul. 29	4	428	—	—	68	Strikers returned to work without concessions.	No				
Aug. 19	Aug. 22	3	39	—	13	—	Eight % increase in wages granted, Increase granted,	No				
Aug. 19	Aug. 21	2.5	538	23	—	—	Increase granted,	No				
Aug. 20	Sep. 6	15	730	12	—	—	Increase granted,	No				
Aug. 28	Sep. 23	21	73	—	—	73	Places of some of the strikers were filled; others were re-employed at same wages paid prior to strike.	No				
Sep. 11	Sep. 13	2	117	8	—	—	Increase granted,	No				
Sep. 16	Sep. 17	1	112	—	—	105	Strikers returned to work without concessions.	No				
Sep. 18	Dec. 9	69	126	—	21	—	Ten % increase granted, but a rearrangement of fixer's sections made it necessary for each fixer to care for more looms than formerly.	No				
Oct. 14	Oct. 17	3	96	—	—	32	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Nov. 11	Nov. 25	12	168	14	—	—	Satisfactory settlement made through direct negotiations.	No				
Jan. 24	Feb. 26	27	558	—	—	34	Places of strikers were filled,	No				
Apr. 8	Apr. 9	1	38	—	—	38	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Jan. 1	Jan. 8	6	373	—	—	75	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Mar. 25	Apr. 22	23	315,189	—	5,909	—	Manufacturers granted an increase in wages on a basis of 10% over schedule of wages in force prior to strike and operatives resumed work.	No				
May 8	Jun. 3	21	21,000	—	—	800	Pending adjustment of strike, places of strikers were filled. Employer finally agreed to reinstate, without discrimination, as many strikers as there were vacancies for. The local Board of Trade acted as mediator.	No				

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- striker- s Thrown Out of Work
Textiles — Con.							
Cotton Goods — Con.							
Employees, . . .	Lowell, . . .	Against conduct of foreman.	No	No	1	20	-
Weavers, spinners, carders, etc.	Lowell, . . .	For employment of members of I. W. W. only.	Yes	Yes	1	400	-
Weavers, . . .	New Bedford,	Against a change from day-work to piece-work on a particular class of work although employer guaranteed weavers would earn as much on piece-work as on day-work.	No	No	1	20	-
Weavers, . . .	New Bedford,	For 10% increase in wages,	No	Yes	1	100	140
Twister doffers, . . .	New Bedford,	Against change from day-work to piece-work at the price per frame offered by manufacturer.	No	No	1	21	-
Weavers, . . .	New Bedford,	Against system of fining for imperfect work. In 1911 a law (e. 584) was passed prohibiting fining for imperfect work. Manufacturers then adopted a so-called grading system, paying one price for first quality work and another price for second quality work. On Jan. 1, 1912, this grading system was temporarily suspended pending a decision of the Supreme Judicial Court in the Lancaster Mills case (212 Mass. 315). On June 18, 1912, the Supreme Court, in effect, held that the grading system was not a violation of the law of 1911. On June 26, 1912, the manufacturers posted notices stating that the amounts deducted for second quality work were to be divided every six months among all their weavers then working and who had been working for the six months previous. On July 9, 1912, the Union voted to demand the abolition of the grading system.	Yes	Yes	12	4,788	8,855
Spinners, doffers, carders, etc.	North Adams,	For increase in wages of 4% to cover reduction in earnings resulting from the taking effect of the 54-hour law. Were granted 5% increase. Then wanted 10% which was granted when similar increase was made in New Bedford.	No	No	1	190	172

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Jun. 3	Jun. 6	3	60	-	20	-	Satisfactorily adjusted, . . .	No				
Sep. 3	Sep. 23	17	6,800	-	-	400	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Feb. 20	Feb. 21	1	20	-	-	20	Places of strikers were filled; later a few of the weavers returned to work.	No				
Feb. 26	Mar. 6-11	12	1,980	-	-	100	Majority of the strikers returned voluntarily to work.	No				
Apr. 8	Apr. 15	6	126	21	-	-	Piece-work discontinued, . . .	No				
Jul. 15	Sep. 23	59	637,230	-	-	4,788	Mills were reopened on Sep. 9, 1912, and strikers gradually returned to work.	No				
Mar. 11	Mar. 25	12	2,932	190	-	-	Both increases granted, . . .	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- striker- s Thrown Out of Work
Textiles — Con.							
<i>Cotton Goods — Con.</i>							
Weavers, . . .	Rockland, .	For discontinuance of system of carrying empty warp beams by weavers to the warping room, on the ground that their time should be devoted to weaving, which is piece-work.	No	No	1	15	-
Weavers, . . .	Northbridge, .	For reduction in number of yards per cut and for extra pay allowance for any work running poorly in the looms.	No	No	1	75	-
Weavers and loomfixers,	Sutton, . .	For increase of 5% in wages for weavers; abolition of grading system; elimination of short bobbins; and for appointment of committee of weavers to act upon dismissal of weavers for poor work.	No	No	1	52	14
Weavers, . . .	Taunton, .	Foremployment of men to clean looms. Weavers claimed they could not earn wages they were entitled to. Company made counter proposition that they would provide loom cleaners if weavers would operate more looms. Weavers refused.	No	No	1	100	400
Reed boys, . . .	Waltham, .	Against reduction in earnings due to the taking effect of the 54-hour law.	No	No	1	7	-
Doffers, . . .	Waltham, .	For reinstatement of discharged employee.	No	No	1	14	-
Operatives, . . .	Webster, .	For an increase of 5% in wages over a previous increase of 5%.	No	No	1	18	707
Weavers, Weavers, spinners, carders, etc.	Warren, . Warren, .	For increase in wages. For reinstatement of discharged employees and for discharge of certain overseers.	No No	No No	1 1	32 190	701
<i>Woolen and Worsted Goods.</i>							
Operatives, . . .	Amesbury, .	Against discharge of two employees who were arrested for mutilating mill machinery.	No	No	1	70	-
Wool workers, . .	Barre, .	For an increase of 20% in wages and a 54-hour week for all operatives; overtime to be paid for at the rate of time and one-quarter.	Yes	Yes	2	632	30
Carpet weavers, . .	Boston, .	For increase of 10% in wages and reinstatement of three discharged employees.	Yes	Yes	1	250	50
Gill hands, comb tenders, back wash hands, and drawing room help.	Chelmsford, .	For 10% increase in wages,	No	No	1	60	16

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Aver-age Duration in Work-ing Days	Num-ber of Work-ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree-ment Made in Writ-ing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employ-ees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Suc-ceeded	Partly Suc-ceeded	Failed						
Mar. 30	Apr. 2	2	30	15	-	-	Objectionable system discontinued,	No				
Feb. 13	Feb. 15	2	150	75	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations,	No				
Jul. 25	Jul. 29	3	198	-	52	-	Grading system was abolished and a system of fines substituted — all money taken in fines to be divided at the end of six months among all weavers who were in company's employ for three preceding months or more.	No				
May 13	May 16	3	1,500	-	100	-	Company agreed to supply the weavers with loom cleaners if a certain per cent of production was maintained.	Yes				
Jan. 15	Jan. 16	1	7	-	-	7	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Nov. 20	Nov. 25	4	56	-	-	14	All but three strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Apr. 22	May 6	12	8,700	18	-	-	Employer granted increase demanded. The successful outcome of this strike resulted in an increase in wages of about 700 other operatives in the mill.	No				
Mar. 19 Nov. 21	Apr. 9 Mar. 1, 1913	18 83	13,194 11,538	-	32	-	Compromise. Strikers gradually returned to work without concessions by employer.	No No				
Jun. 7	Jun. 14	6	420	-	-	70	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Mar. 11,12	Mar. 22	9.5	6,500	-	632	-	Terms of agreement provided for minimum weekly wage of \$6 for adults; new rate per hour to be paid for 54 hours' work, time and one-quarter for overtime; and an increase of 5% on all piece-work.	-				
Apr. 8	Jul. 1	70	19,000	-	-	250	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Mar. 25	Apr. 1	6	376	60	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- strik- ers Thrown Out of Work
Textiles — Con.							
<i>Woolen and Worsted Goods — Con.</i>							
Members.	Fitchburg.	For increase in weekly wages from \$10 to \$12 and for abolition of premium system.	No	No	1	57	-
Weavers.	Fitchburg.	For increase in wages.	No	No	1	73	0
Piecer boys.	Hanover.	For increase in wages.	No	No	1	5	-
Buriers and sewers.	Haverhill.	Against reduction in earnings due to taking effect of the 54-hour law.	No	No	1	40	-
Helpers.	Holyoke.	For 10% increase in wages.	No	No	1	13	-
Card tenders and comb winders.	Hudson.	For 15% increase in wages, double pay for overtime, and 5¢ hours' pay for 54 hours' work.	Yes	Yes	1	85	-
Wool spinners.	Hudson.	For increase in wages.	No	-	1	88	-
Card tenders.	Hudson.	For discharge of non-union operatives who worked during a prior strike.	No	No	1	89	-
Operatives.	Lawrence.	Against reduction in earnings due to the taking effect of the 54-hour law. <i>See pages 20-21 above.</i>	No	No	10	8,404	12,786
 Sidneyian items							
Carders.	Lawrence.	For 15% increase in wages.	Yes	No	4	65	-
Combers.	Lawrence.	For time and one-quarter for overtime.	No	No	1	65	-
Carders, combers, dyers and wet finishers.	Lawrence.	For reinstatement of discharged operatives.	No	No	1	105	455
Spinners.	Lawrence.	For a change in working conditions.	No	No	1	65	-
Comb tenders and finishers.	Lawrence.	For the reinstatement of all operatives who were dismissed previous to a previous strike.	No	No	1	110	-
Spinners, dye houses and yards.	Lowell.	For 10% increase in wages and in sympathy with strike of the local cotton mills.	Yes	No	1	425	-
Weavers.	Monson.	For 10% increase in wages.	No	Yes	1	32	-
Operatives.	Newton.	For 10% increase in wages.	No	No	1	487	-
Worsted spinners.	North Adams.	Against reduction in earnings due to the taking effect of the 54-hour law.	No	No	1	40	-
Weavers.	North Adams.	For increase in piece-rates on certain style of work.	No	No	1	45	26

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
				Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Employees Left Work												
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	6	342	-	57	-	Strikers were granted increase of two cents an hour on certain classes of goods on which they were unable to make a premium.	No				
Dec. 4	Dec. 30	21	2,453	-	-	73	Majority of strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Mar. 18	Mar. 20	2	8	-	-	8	Two strikers returned to work immediately, the others returned later. No concessions by employer.	No				
Jan. 13	Jan. 18	4	160	-	-	40	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer. Employer agreed to give piece-work when practical.	No				
Mar. 14	Mar. 16	2	26	13	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations. Beginners were granted an increase from \$3.65 to \$4.35 a week, and from \$4.35 to \$5.50 after 4 weeks' service; further increases according to ability.	No				
Apr. 2	Apr. 15	11	935	-	85	-	Granted 55 hours' pay for 54 hours' work.	No				
Apr. 10	Apr. 15	4	112	28	-	-	Increase granted, . . .	No				
Apr. 18	May 20	27	1,526	-	-	85	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Jan. 1, 12	Mar. 18	51.7	748,489	8,404	-	-	Some 30,000 textile-mill employees in Lawrence were granted increases in wages of from 5 to 20%; increased compensation for overtime; and the reduction of the premium period in certain occupations from four weeks to two weeks. Also, as an indirect result of this strike, material increases in wages were granted to thousands of employees in other textile mills throughout New England.	No				
Mar. 21	Mar. 25	4	254	63	2	-	Three mills granted the 15% increase. One mill granted a 10% increase.	Yes				
Apr. 9	Apr. 12	3	195	-	-	65	Places of strikers were filled.	No				
May 28	Jun. 7	8	3,289	-	-	108	Strikers returned to work after negotiations failed.	No				
May 28	Jun. 3	4	2,700	675	-	-	Non-union operatives who were cause of strike joined the union and employees returned to work.	No				
Aug. 15	Aug. 19 ¹	3	102	-	-	34	Places of strikers were filled.	No				
Oct. 7	Oct. 16	8	960	-	-	120	Strikers resumed work without concessions from employer.	No				
Mar. 25	Apr. 23	25	4,250	-	-	425	172 strikers returned to work without concessions by employer. Places of other strikers were filled.	No				
Apr. 29	May 1	2	64	-	32	-	Employer agreed to grant an increase of approximately 5%.	No				
Mar. 25	Apr. 2	7	3,059	-	-	437	Strikers returned to work after negotiations failed.	No				
Jan. 12	Jan. 15	2	80	-	-	40	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Jan. 17	Jan. 22	4	296	-	-	48	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				

¹ Estimated.

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Textiles — Con.							
Woolen and Worsted Goods — Con.							
Operatives, . . .	Norton, .	For increase in wages over the 15% increase which mill management notified employees would be paid after first week in April.	No	No	1	108	6
Weavers, . . .	Oxford, .	For an increase in wages from 10 cents to 11.4 cents a yard for single loom work.	No	No	1	23	-
Spinners, Weavers, . . .	Pittsfield, Uxbridge, .	For increase in wages, For 5% increase in wages,	No No	No No	1 1	22 12	18 -
Weavers, . . .	Uxbridge, .	For 5% increase in wages over a 5% increase about to be granted voluntarily by employer.	No	No	1	39	4
Weavers, . . .	Uxbridge, .	For 10% increase in wages, which demand was later reduced to 5%.	No	No	1	50	22
Spinners, Dresser spoolers, . .	Webster, Westford, .	For 11% increase in wages, For an increase of 25 cents per 100 pounds on piece-work.	No No	No No	1 1	8 6	-
<i>Dyeing and Finishing.</i>							
Dye-house laborers, .	Andover, .	For increase in weekly wages from \$7.75 to \$9.	No	No	1	7	-
Folding room and color-shop employees.	- -	Lockout in anticipation of strike of employees for increase in wages.	-	No	1	73	400
Stationary firemen, .	North Adams, .	For increase in daily wages. Head fireman from \$2.10 to \$2.64; firemen from \$2 to \$2.40; coal wheelers from \$1.80 to \$2.16.	Yes	No	1	20	450
Stitchers, ticketers, trimmers, etc.	Waltham, .	For 56 hours' pay for 54 hours' work. Due to the taking effect of the 54-hour law.	No	No	1	55	-
<i>Flax, Hemp, and Jute Goods.</i>							
Balers and shippers, .	Lawrence, .	For 10% increase in wages and reduction in weekly hours of labor from 56 to 54.	No	No	1	8	-
Leather and Leather Goods.							
Boots and Shoes.							
McKay stitchers, . .	Athol, .	For increase of one cent per dozen pairs of shoes stitched.	No	No	1	7	-
Stitchers and cutters, .	Beverly, .	Against refusal of firm to continue to allow union business agent to visit factory in order to collect weekly dues from members.	Yes	Yes	1	140	30
Edgemakers, heelers, stockfitters, and cleaning-department employees.	Boston, .	Against further employment of three non-union workmen.	No	No	1	65	250

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Mar. 29	Apr. 3	4	450	—	—	108	After extent of wage increase offered by the management prior to the strike was explained, strikers returned to work on employer's terms.	No				
Mar. 18	Mar. 19	1	23	23	—	—	Increase granted,	No				
Sep. 21 Apr. 17	Sep. 24 Apr. 22	2 4	62 48	— 12	— —	22 —	Places of strikers were filled, . . . Increase of 5% granted for entire mill.	No No				
Apr. 22	Apr. 25	3	108	39	—	—	Increase as demanded granted after employees had refused employer's offer of a 7½% increase over former wages.	No				
Apr. 23	Apr. 29	5	316	—	—	50	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Oct. 1 Apr. 12	Oct. 6 May 1	6 16	48 49	— —	— —	8 6	Places of strikers were filled, . . . Places of strikers were filled after they had refused to accept employer's offer of an increase of 10 cents per 100 pounds.	No No				
Feb. 20	Feb. 22	2	14	7	—	—	Increase granted. Direct negotiations.	No				
Apr. 1	Apr. 8	6	2,038	—	—	73	Work was resumed without change in wage scale.	No				
Jul. 1	Jul. 8	5	2,350	—	20	—	Direct negotiations resulted in management offering head fireman \$2.35 a day, firemen \$2.20 a day, and coal wheelers \$2 a day; offer was accepted and strikers returned to work.	No				
Jan. 10	Jan. 17	6	90	—	55	—	Increase granted to majority of the women strikers and all returned to work.	No				
Apr. 13	Apr. 15	1	8	—	—	8	Four strikers returned to work, places of the others were filled.	No				
Nov. 7	Nov. 11	3	21	7	—	—	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Jan. 31	Feb. 13	11	1,660	—	140	—	Regulation of length of visit of union agent was brought about through a local board of arbitration.	Yes				
Aug. 21	Aug. 22	1	315	65	—	—	Strikers returned to work, non-union men agreeing to join union.	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- striker- s Thrown out of Work
Leather and Leather Goods—Con.							
<i>Boots and Shoes—Con.</i>							
Shoe workers, . . .	Boston, . . .	For same piece-rates as were in effect in Lynn, and for recognition of union.	Yes	No	1	200	34
Cutters, . . . Rough rounders, . . .	Boston, . . . Bridgewater, . . .	For increase in wages, . . Concerning fines for damaged work.	Yes No	Yes No	1 1	15 5	85 -
Lasters, Goodyear operators, and making-room employees.	Bridgewater, . . .	For increase in piece-rates for lasting to same level of rates paid in Brockton.	Yes	Yes	1	439	431
Shoemakers, . . . Shoe cutters, . . .	Brockton, . . . Haverhill, . . .	For increase in piece-rates, For increase of one cent a pair for cutting shoes.	Yes No	No -	1 1	25 18	- 32
Block cutters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For increase of approximately 30% in piece-rates, reduction in weekly hours of labor from 59 to 50, and recognition of union.	Yes	Yes	20	233	49
Cutters and stockfitters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For reduction in weekly hours of labor from 54 to 50.	No	No	1	8	-
Counter workers, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For 25% increase in wages, reduction in weekly hours of labor from 59 to 54, and recognition of union.	Yes	Yes	1	40	20
Block cutters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	Against employment of an objectionable assistant foreman.	Yes	No	1	32	-
Block cutters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	Against employment of a man alleged to have worked as strike breaker during a previous strike.	No	No	1	20	-
Cutters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For increase in weekly wages from \$16.50 to \$18 and reduction in weekly hours of labor from 54 to 50.	No	No	1	7	-
Block cutters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For discharge of a trimming cutter who was hired and refused to join I. W. W.	No	No	1	25	-
Cutters, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For recognition of union and to force employers to resign from Shoe Manufacturers' Association.	Yes	Yes	23	372	789
Lasters, . . .	Hudson, . . .	Against proposed introduction of girls into lasting rink to run new assembling machines.	Yes	No	1	24	200
Lasters and sole leather workers.	Lawrence, . . .	For 15% increase in wages,	No	No	1	70	330
Cutters, . . .	Lowell, . . .	Against decrease in weekly wages resulting from reduction in hours of labor from 58 to 54.	No	No	1	14	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Aver-	Num-	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree-				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Suc-	Partly Suc-	Failed						
Sep. 16	Nov. 4	42	3,382	-	200	-	Compromise on cutter's price list. Recognition of union granted. Prices increased in some departments; others referred to State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration.	No				
Dec. 5	Dec. 26	17	1,155	-	-	15	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Jan. 18	Jan. 20	2	10	-	-	5	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Mar. 12	-	78	22,066	-	-	439	Some strikers returned to work, places of others were filled.	No				
Jun. 15	Jun. 24	7	175	25	-	-	Settled through direct negotiation, New system of inspecting and sorting work was established and a satisfactory increase in scale of piece-rates granted.	-				
Jul. 15	Jul. 29	12	600	-	18	-	Settled through direct negotiation, New system of inspecting and sorting work was established and a satisfactory increase in scale of piece-rates granted.	No				
Jul. 17	Aug. 12-16	22	6,091	-	216	17	All but two employers granted increase of 10% in wages and reduction in hours as demanded by strikers but maintained open shop.	Yes				
Aug. 20	Oct. 1	35	280	-	-	8	Strikers resumed work. No readjustment of hours was granted.	No				
Aug. 22	Sep. 5-23	26	950	-	-	40	Places of strikers were filled. On October 10, State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration rendered decision (under provisions of acts of 1912, c. 545) that business of the firm was being carried on in normal and usual manner.	No				
Sep. 4	Sep. 5	1	32	32	-	-	Foreman in question was discharged and strikers returned to work.	No				
Sep. 19	Sep. 24	4	80	20	-	-	Satisfactory settlement reached through direct negotiation.	No				
Oct. 5	Oct. 15	7	49	-	-	7	Work was put on a piece-work basis and places of strikers were filled.	No				
Dec. 20	Dec. 23	2½	63	25	-	-	Trimming cutter left work, . .	No				
Dec. 12-Jan., 1913	Pending	37.3	32,974	-	-	372	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Apr. 19	May 3	12	1,488	24	-	-	Employer and lasters agreed upon price for hand assembling and new system of machine lasting was abandoned.	No				
Mar. 26	Apr. 1	5	2,000	-	70	-	Employer granted certain increase in prices in lasting, stockfitting, and sole leather departments.	No				
Jan. 13	Jan. 25	10	140	-	14	-	Satisfactory adjustment was made by changing system of payment from day-work to piece-work.	No				

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Leather and Leather Goods—Con.							
<i>Boots and Shoes—Con.</i>							
Turn workmen, . . .	Lynn, . . .	Against sending extra work to contractor who did not employ union men.	Yes	No	1	8	-
McKay stitchers, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For increase of two cents a dozen pairs for stitching.	Yes	Yes	16	67	1,162
Turn workmen, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For increase of two cents a pair on certain grade of shoes.	Yes	Yes	1	30	-
Buttonhole operators and stitchers.	Lynn, . . .	For increase of one-half cent per 100 buttonholes.	Yes	No	1	132	-
Welters, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For adoption of original price list presented to firm before dispute was referred to State Board of Arbitration. Welters had worked under schedule awarded by the Board for 60 days as required by law.	Yes	Yes	1	14	-
Cutters, . . .	Boston and Lynn.	For same piece-rates in Boston cutting room as were paid in the Lynn cutting room.	Yes	No	2	48	159
Lasters, McKay stitchers, and beaters-out.	Lynn, . . .	For recognition of union and abolition of contract system in treeing department.	Yes	Yes	1	25	200
Lasters and machine operators.	Lynn, . . .	For increase in piece-rates.	Yes	-	1	14	-
Lasters,	Lynn, . . .	For reinstatement of five union men discharged from shoe factory operated by same employer in Boston. Union claimed they were discharged because of membership in union.	Yes	No	1	50	100
Lasters, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For reinstatement of discharged employee.	Yes	No	1	11	40
Heel makers, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For restoration of price-list in force a year previous.	No	Yes	1	198	-
Cutters, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For increase of three-fourths cent a pair on boots and one-half cent a pair on oxfords.	Yes	Yes	7	257	280
Lasters, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For reinstatement of discharged employees.	Yes	No	1	204	50
Lasters, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For reinstatement of laster discharged because he demanded more pay for lasting what he alleged to be a difficult case of shoes.	No	No	1	67	360
Lasters, stitchers, levelers, finishers, and packing room employees.	Lynn, . . .	For increase of one-half cent a pair for certain style of last.	Yes	Yes	1	36	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Aver- age Duration in Work- ing Days	Num- ber of Work- ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree- ment Made in Writ- ing				
DATES ON WHICH —	Employees Left Work			NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
				Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded	Failed						
Jan. 3	Jan. 10	6	48	8	-	-	At time of strike company operated open shop; several months later signed union agreement for closed shop and union piece-rates.	Yes				
Mar. 25	Apr. 2	3.1	4,482	67	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	Yes				
Mar. 25	Apr. 2	7	210	30	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	Yes				
Apr. 2	Apr. 4	2	264	132	-	-	Demands of the buttonhole makers were granted by employer and strikers resumed work.	No				
Apr. 2	Apr. 3	1	14	14	-	-	Increase in piece-rates as demanded by strikers was granted through direct negotiations.	Yes				
Apr. 6	May 6	24.5	3,097	37	-	11	Boston room discontinued and slight increase granted cutters in Lynn.	Yes				
Apr. 15	Apr. 22	5	1,125	25	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	Yes				
Apr. 15	Apr. 22	6	63	14	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	-				
Apr. 16	Aug. 1	90	12,900	-	-	50	In suit brought by company against union master found that strike was not for a lawful purpose. Stipulation was made that name of company in Boston be changed before Jan. 1, 1913.	No				
Apr. 25	May 2	5	255	11	-	-	Employer agreed to reinstatement but discharged employee refused to return to work.	No				
May 3, 6	May 20	14	2,434	-	198	-	Terms of settlement were negotiated between employer and union of which strikers had become members. An arbitration agreement for one year was signed. Prices were adjusted in all branches of work except one which was discontinued.	Yes				
May 25	May 28-June 4	3.6	1,741	257	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	Yes				
Jun. 12	Jun. 25	11	2,794	204	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Jun. 13	Jun. 24	9	3,843	67	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations. Discharged man was reinstated.	No				
Aug. 19	Aug. 21	2	72	36	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- gan- iza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- striker- s	Num- ber of Thrown Out of Work
Leather and Leather Goods — Con.								
Boots and Shoes — Con. Top lift cutters, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For increase in weekly wages to \$16.50 and for reduction in weekly hours of labor from 55 to 50.	Yes	Yes	8	51	13	
Stitchers, . . .	Lynn, . . .	Refusal to work under new foreman.	No	No	1	137	-	
Heel makers, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For increase in piece-rates and a nine-hour day.	Yes	Yes	6	60	-	
Sole leather workers, .	Lynn, . . .	For uniform weekly wage scale of \$22 for sole cutters, \$21 for sorters, and \$16.50 for strippers; nine-hour day; standardization of apprenticeship rules; and closed shop.	Yes	Yes	15	220	5	
Turn workmen, . . .	Marblehead, . . .	For increase in wages from 6 to 10 cents a pair on account of change in method of making shoes.	Yes	No	1	50	-	
Lasters and pullers-over,	Marlborough, . . .	For increase in piece-rates,	No	No	1	9	-	
Lasters,	Milford, . . .	For increase in piece-rates for three different grades of shoes.	No	No	1	6	-	
Lasting machine operators.	North Adams, . . .	Against delay in distribution of work.	No	Yes	1	17	9	
Shoe-factory employees,	Salem, . . .	Lockout. Employer demanded that all employees become members of B. & S. W. U. by a specified date.	-	No	1	50	-	
Cutters,	Salem, . . .	For employer's acceptance of new price-list, change in method of giving out patterns, dismissal of certain Greek employees.	Yes	Yes	1	45	500	
Stockfitters,	Salem, . . .	For increase in piece-rates,	Yes	Yes	1	40	15	
Pullers-over,	Weymouth, . . .	For increase of one-half cent a pair for pulling over; after employer conceded increase, strikers demanded discharge of non-union men and a further increase of one-half cent.	No	No	1	34	-	
<i>Leather, Tanned, Curried, and Finished.</i>								
Shavers (machine), . . .	Ayer, . . .	For increase in wages on certain kinds of work.	No	No	1	8	-	
Leather workers, . . .	Haverhill, . . .	For 25% increase in wages and reduction in hours of labor from 59 to 54 a week for all employees.	Yes	Yes	1	231	-	

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Aug. 5-9	Aug. 12- Sep. 3	5.7	342	51	-	-	Employers signed price-list presented by cutters.	Yes				
Aug. 22	Aug. 23	1	137	-	-	137	Strikers resumed work under conditions existing prior to strike. Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Oct. 24, 30, Nov. 1 Nov. 21	Oct. 24- Nov. 7 Dec. 2- Feb. 12	3.2	166	60	-	-	In January one of the manufacturers involved in the strike sought an injunction to restrain members of union from interfering with the business of the firm. Case was heard and question of legality of strike was left to the court, but before further proceedings, strikers returned to work unconditionally in this factory — later they were granted a nine-hour day and some increase in wages. Majority of strikers in the other factories concerned resumed work on different dates, having been granted nine-hour day and \$1 increase in wages; other demands were waived.	Yes				
Aug. 29	Sep. 16	14	700	50	-	-	Company abandoned old method, but did not adopt the one for which 10 cents a pair was demanded.	Yes				
Jul. 30	Jul. 31	1	9	9	-	-	Strikers were granted 25 cents a dozen for lasting.	No				
Dec. 31	Jan. 10, 1913	9	54	-	6	-	Settled through direct negotiation,	-				
May 13	May 15	2	52	-	-	17	Strikers returned to work without negotiations.	No				
Aug. 31	Sep. 9	6	300	50	-	-	Employer signed new agreement with U. S. W. U.	Yes				
Sep. 19	Oct. 25	31	8,895	-	45	-	Compromise on price-list. Other demands granted.	Yes				
Oct. 24 Jul. 10	Nov. 20 Jul. 17	23 6	600 204	-	-	40 34	Places of strikers were filled. After first one-half cent increase in rates places of strikers were filled.	No No				
Mar. 1	Mar. 15	12	72	-	-	8	Places of four of the strikers were filled; others returned to work at same wages paid prior to strike.	No				
Apr. 23	May 20	23	5,313	-	231	-	Employer granted increase of \$1 a week to employees receiving \$6 and \$7 a week; 10% increase in wages for all other employees; 54-hour week during four months for men employees and during entire year for other employees.	Yes				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Leather and Leather Goods—Con.							
<i>Leather, Tanned, Curried, and Finished—Con.</i>							
Tanners, curriers, and laborers.	Hudson, .	For 15% increase in wages; double pay for overtime; nine-hour day with Saturday half-holiday; abolition of fining system.	Yes	Yes	1	59	-
Morocco workers, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For increase in weekly wages from \$10 to \$11.	No	No	1	100	-
Tackers, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For reinstatement of discharged employee.	No	No	1	18	50
Tackers, . . .	Woburn, . . .	Against employment of a Greek workman.	No	No	1	6	-
Metals, Machinery, and Shipbuilding.							
<i>Iron and Steel Products.</i>							
Molders and coremakers,	Boston, Cambridge, Chelsea, and Quincy.	For minimum daily wage of \$3.50 for all molders, coremakers and machine operators, 10% increase to all piece-workers—a price-list of all work made by the piece to be submitted to a shop committee for action.	Yes	Yes	9	445	198
Automobile repairers, .	Boston, . . .	For time and a half for overtime work.	No	No	1	8	-
Die makers, . . .	Brockton, . . .	For 48-hour week and elimination of arbitration clause from working agreement.	Yes	Yes	2	57	-
Molders and coremakers,	Chicopee, . . .	For increase in daily rates of wages from \$3 to \$3.25 for molders and from \$2.75 to \$3.10 for coremakers.	Yes	Yes	1	30	12
Wire-cloth weavers, . . .	Clinton, . . .	Against readjustment of rates which would result in reduction in earnings of wide-loom weavers.	No	No	1	4	-
Coremakers and iron molders.	Holyoke, . . .	Against discharge of two union coremakers.	No	No	1	32	-
Molders and coremakers,	Holyoke, . . .	For increase in daily wages from \$3 to \$3.25 for molders and from \$2.75 to \$3.25 for coremakers.	No	Yes	1	50	-
Molders and coremakers,	Lawrence, . . .	For increase in minimum daily wages from \$3 to \$3.25 for molders and from \$2.75 to \$3 for coremakers.	Yes	Yes	5	110	59
Laborers, . . .	Lowell, . . .	For reduction in weekly hours of labor from 58 to 53.	No	No	1	30	-
Molders and coremakers,	Lowell, . . .	For increase in daily wages from \$2.75 to \$3.25.	Yes	Yes	3	74	10
Boilermakers, . . .	Malden, . . .	For reinstatement of employee who was discharged because of his conduct when spoken to about using so much of employer's time to transact union business.	No	No	1	30	30

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
				Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Apr. 9	May 15	31	1,829	-	-	59	None of demands were granted,	No				
May 17	May 20	2	200	100	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Jun. 28	Jul. 2	3	154	-	-	18	Men returned to work without any concessions being made.	No				
Sep. 16	Sep. 17	1	6	-	-	6	No concession made,	No				
Aug. 2-14	Aug. 2-Oct. 1	19	11,664	-	238	207	Settlement varied in the different foundries; many of the strikers were granted \$3.50 a day, others returned to work under merit system of wages, places of others were filled; open shop conditions prevailed.	No				
Sep. 10	Sep. 13	3	24	8	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations,	No				
Jan. 3	Feb. 19	31	1,758	29	28	-	One company granted both demands; one refused to agree to abolition of arbitration clause, but granted 48-hour week.	Yes				
Sep. 23	Sep. 30	6	252	30	-	-	Demands of strikers were granted through direct negotiations.	No				
Apr. 11	Apr. 12	1	4	4	-	-	Rates were not readjusted,	No				
Jun. 17, Aug. 20	Jun. 25, Aug. 21	7 1	224 50	- -	- 50	32	Places of strikers were filled, Employer agreed to increase wages to \$3.25 for molders and to \$3.10 for coremakers.	- Yes				
May 13	May 28	13	1,835	110	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations,	No				
Apr. 26	Apr. 30	3	90	30	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Sep. 21	Oct. 19	23.3	1,846	-	74	-	Daily wages increased to \$3,	Yes				
Nov. 25	Nov. 29	4	210	30	-	-	Employer reinstated discharged employee on condition that he would not use company's time to transact union's business. Employee returned, worked three hours, then left.	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- strik- ers Thrown Out of Work
Metals, Machinery, and Shipbuilding —Con.							
<i>Iron and Steel Products</i> —Con.							
Machinists, . . .	Marlborough,	For increase of 25 cents a day in wages and Saturday half-holiday.	No	No	1	6	-
Molders and coremakers, . . .	New Bedford,	For daily wage of \$3, nine-hour day, and time and one-half for overtime.	Yes	Yes	2	60	1
Machinists, molders, and snappers.	Newton, . . .	Snaggers and molders demanded increase of 20%; machinists asked for increase of 10%; then snaggers asked for an increase of 3 cents an hour and rearrangement of hours of labor; molders on piece-work asked for increase in prices so daily earnings would be increased from \$2.75 to \$3.	No	No	1	300	300
Snaggers and laborers, . . .	Newton, . . .	For reinstatement of men discharged for refusing to do certain work (to place cast iron trimmings in cans for a cupola).	Yes	No	1	75	-
Wire workers, . . .	Palmer, . . .	Against locking of rear mill gate making main gate the only means of entrance to mill.	No	No	1	100	-
<i>Miscellaneous Metal Products.</i>							
Can makers, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against reduction in wages resulting from the taking effect of the 54-hour law.	No	No	1	99	-
Tinsmiths, . . .	Boston, . . .	For increase in wages from 45 to 52½ cents an hour.	Yes	No	1	10	-
Chandelier makers and polishers.	Boston, . . .	For reduction in weekly hours of labor from 54 to 49½ without reduction in wages.	Yes	Yes	2	28	-
Transformer department employees.	Pittsfield, . . .	Against revision of piece-rates which resulted in a reduction in wages.	No	No	1	35	-
Assemblers, . . .	Pittsfield, . . .	That men involved in previous strike be given work at old scale of wages.	No	No	1	50	-
Molders and coremakers, . . .	Pittsfield, . . .	For recognition of a committee representing molders' union to whom all piece-work prices were to be submitted for approval before being put into effect by company.	Yes	No	1	120	-
<i>Shipbuilding.</i>							
Drillers and tappers, . . .	Quincy, . . .	For 15% increase in wages for piece-work.	Yes	No	1	80	-
Food, Liquors, and Tobacco.							
<i>Liquors and Beverages.</i>							
Coopers, . . .	Boston, Lowell and New Bedford.	For Saturday half-holiday during entire year.	Yes	Yes	18	50	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Oct. 21	Oct. 23	2	12	-	6	-	Employer granted increase in wages as demanded.	No				
Dec. 31	Jan. 11, 1913	10	286	-	-	60	Places of strikers were gradually filled although union reported strike still pending.	-				
Mar. 19	Apr. 1	11	5,700	-	300	-	Increase in wages of 5% was granted to both molders and coremakers.	No				
Apr. 25	May 9	12	200	-	-	75	Places of strikers were filled by other workmen.	No				
Sep. 30	Oct. 1	1	100	-	-	100	Strikers resumed work without concessions by employer.	No				
Jan. 30	Feb. 5	5	495	-	99	-	Readjustment of wages was made by employer and strikers resumed work.	No				
Mar. 26	Mar. 28	2	20	-	-	10	Places of strikers were filled, .	No				
Sep. 5	Sep. 18, Oct. 28	27.5	697	-	28	-	Employers granted a 50-hour week and strikers resumed work.	No				
Mar. 26	Mar. 28	2	70	-	-	35	Strikers resumed work without any concession by employer.	No				
Mar. 27	Mar. 30	2	100	50	-	-	Demand of strikers was granted, .	No				
Jun. 27	Jul. 20	19	2,280	-	-	120	Places of strikers were filled, .	No				
Aug. 26	Sep. 26	26	2,080	80	-	-	Settled through direct negotiation,	No				
May 6	Jun. 10	29.9	1,500	-	48	2	Employers granted Saturday half-holiday for 3 months of the year. Two of the breweries sent their work elsewhere and gave up employing coopers.	Yes				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers	Number of Throwns Out of Work
Printing and Allied Trades.								
Printing and Publishing.								
Employees,	Fall River,	For increase in wages,	No	No	1	3		-
Clothing.								
<i>Clothing, Women's.</i>								
Pressmen,	Boston,	For increase in wages and for union shop.	Yes	-	8	72	249	
Cloak and suit tailors,	Boston,	For recognition of union and for union shop.	Yes	No	1	30		-
Suit and cloak makers,	Boston,	Against violation of union rule that work should be equally divided among employees during dull season instead of discharging employees, and for reinstatement of discharged employees.	Yes	No	1	40		-
Shirt waist makers,	Boston,	For recognition of union, For new scale of piece-rates and for reduction in weekly hours from 58 to 56.	Yes	No	1	44	1	
Garment workers,	Worcester,		Yes	No	1	23	3	
<i>Hats and Caps.</i>								
Cap makers,	Boston,	Concerning a dispute between a member of the firm and a certain employee.	No	No	1	11		-
Hat makers,	Haverhill,	For flat increase of 25% in wages for all employees in specified departments, for a 54-hour week, and for the appointment of a grievance committee of employees.	Yes	Yes	1	150	50	
Hat makers,	Haverhill,	For employment of none but members of I. W. W. in certain departments of factory.	Yes	No	1	150		-
Fulling room employees,	Lawrence,	For Saturday half-holiday without loss of pay.	No	No	1	9		-
<i>Corsets.</i>								
Machine operatives,	Worcester,	For an increase in piece-rates or that the speed of machines be increased. Employer claimed that the high speed at which operatives ran their machines was destructive to the machine and ordered the speed reduced.	No	No	1	27		-

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Aver- age Duration in Work- ing Days	Num- ber of Work- ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree- ment Made in Writ- ing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Emplo- ees Left Work	Strikers Re- employed or Their Places Filled			Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded	Failed						
Jun. 18	Jun. 21	3	9	-	3	-	Increase of \$1 in weekly wages was granted.	No				
Apr. 27	May 1	2.8	76	-	24	2	Three of the establishments granted an 8-hour day. One employer made no concessions.	No				
Jan. 1	Jan. 17- Feb. 10	23.8	7,840	-	12	60	Majority of workers returned to work without concessions. Slight increase in wages was granted by two employers.	-				
Jul. 12	Aug. 3	19	570	30	-	-	Demands granted at conference between employer and union.	Yes				
Sep. 7	Oct. 10	28	1,120	-	40	-	Employer agreed to equal division of work during dull season.	Yes				
Oct. 8	Oct. 22	12	540	-	-	44	Places of strikers were filled.	No				
Jun. 19	Jul. 31	36	393	-	-	23	Employer made no concessions to strikers but the non-union men who took their places were given a new scale of piece-rates. Weekly hours remained at 55.	No				
Jul. 6	Jul. 13	6	66	11	-	-	Strikers were all reinstated and received part pay for time lost.	No				
Apr. 30	May 4	4	850	-	150	-	Agreement was signed by employer and representatives of employees granting the following conditions: Increase of 10% in wages; rearrangement of schedule of hours of labor according to seasons, providing for a 54-hour week for men and a 52-hour week for women from November 1 to May 1; other demands granted in full in all departments covered by agreement.	Yes				
May 31	Jun. 4	3	450	150	-	-	Agreement signed by employer and representative of union.	Yes				
Jun. 29	Jul. 9	7	21	9	-	-	Work was rearranged so as to allow the Saturday half-holiday. Some of the strikers were reinstated, the places of others were filled.	No				
Mar. 20	Mar. 28	7	132	-	-	27	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Paper and Paper Goods.							
<i>Paper and Wood Pulp.</i> Plater girls, . . .	Holyoke, .	Against change from day to piece-work system, also for increase in daily wages from \$1 to \$1.25 on account of a rearrangement of working conditions.	No	No	2	144	12
Laborers and rag-room help.	Holyoke, .	For increase in wages over new schedule put into effect by mill officials.	No	No	4	36	-
Laborers, . . .	Holyoke, .	Against discharge of fellow workman.	No	No	1	8	-
Rag sorters, . . .	West Springfield.	For increase in wages from 20 to 22 cents per 100 pounds of rags sorted.	No	No	1	35	-
Paper-mill workers, .	Lawrence, .	In sympathy with strike in textile mills. Later demanded a 15% increase in wages.	No	No ¹	1	219	-
Rag room and finishing department employees.	Russell, .	For increase in wages for rag sorters from 20 to 25 cents per 100 pounds and an increase in wages of 25 cents a day for finishing-room employees.	No	No	1	53	91
Rubber and Gutta Percha Goods.							
<i>Rubber Clothing.</i> Cementers and stitchers,	Boston, .	For increase of 10 cents in piece-rates; for discharge of foreman and of two non-union workmen.	No	No	1	26	-
Rubber coat makers, .	Cambridge, .	Against reduction of 15% in piece-rates.	No	No	1	39	-
Cementers, . . .	Milford, .	Against reduction in price for making coat from 58 to 50 cents, due to change in style of coat.	No	No	1	30	-
Cementers, . . .	Stoughton, .	For an increase in wages of \$3 a week.	No	No	1	27	-
Furniture and Wood Working.							
<i>Saw-mill and Planing-mill Products.</i> Boxmakers and laborers.	Lawrence, .	For increase of 10% in wages, time and one-half for overtime, and reduction in weekly hours of labor from 58 to 54.	No	No	3	174	50
Boxmakers, . . .	Lawrence, .	Refusal of non-union workman to join the union.	No	No	1	25	35
Millmen, . . .	Lowell, .	For reduction in weekly hours of labor from 55 to 50 without reduction in wages.	No	Yes	5	72	-

¹ Written demand for increase in wages was made February 28.

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Aver- age Dura- tion in Work- ing Days	Num- ber of Work- ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree- ment Made in Writ- ing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded	Failed						
Jan. 25, Feb. 12	Feb. 21	23	3,036	-	-	144	Strikers returned to work, piece-work system to be gradually installed. The State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration acted as mediator.	No				
May 16- 20	May 18, 21	1.5	57	-	-	36	Some of strikers returned to work without concessions. Places of other strikers were filled.	No				
Jun. 26	Jun. 28	2	16	-	-	8	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
May 27	Jun. 3	5	175	-	35	-	Strikers accepted employer's proposition to put into operation a scale of rates from 18 to 30 cents per 100 pounds according to grade of rags sorted. Company guaranteed 10% increase in earnings.	No				
Jan. 15	-	26 ²	3,565	-	219	-	About 46 of the strikers were re-employed, places of others filled. Later an increase in wages was granted throughout the mill.	No				
Jun. 5	Jun. 12	6	1,228	-	53	-	Rag sorters received an increase of 2 cents per 100 pounds, day workers received \$1 a day, but finishing department employees returned to work under the old conditions.	No				
Aug.	-	Aug.	-	9	154	-	Increase in wages granted and strikers returned to work.	No				
Nov. 20	Dec. 2	9	234	-	-	39	Majority of workers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Apr. 17	Apr. 18	1	30	-	-	30	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Jun. 11	Jun. 19	7	189	-	-	27	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Mar. 18	Mar. 20, 21	2.5	508	134	40	-	Demands granted in two factories. The third employer granted reduction in hours and agreed to increase wages when business conditions warranted it.	No				
Aug. 14	Aug. 16	2	120	25	-	-	Strikers resumed work, employer agreeing to discharge workman in question or have him join the union.	No				
Jul. 3	Jul. 11- Sep. 3	25.8	1,392	-	3	69	Places of majority of strikers were filled; later some of the strikers were reinstated upon their application.	-				

² Estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Furniture and Wood Working — Con. <i>Wood Turning and Carving.</i> Piano key and action makers.	Cambridge, .	For employment of members of I. W. W. only.	No	No	1	300	-
Upholsterers, . . .	Boston and Cambridge.	For increase in minimum weekly wages from \$19.50 to \$21 and reduction in weekly hours of labor from 50 to 47.	Yes	Yes	6	64	-
Chemicals and Allied Products.							
Fertilizer laborers, .	Billerica, .	For discharge of foreman, for increase in wages, and for better facilities for washing, eating lunches, etc.	No	No	1	70	-
Laborers, . . .	Chicopee, .	For increase of \$1 a week in wages.	No	No	1	18	-
Oil factory employees, .	New Bedford, .	For increase of \$1 a week in wages.	No	No	1	29	-
Acid-room employees, .	Springfield, .	For increase in hourly rates of wages from 30 to 35 cents and from 27½ to 30 cents.	No	No	1	18	-
Stone, Glass, and Clay Products.							
Brick makers, . . .	South Hadley, .	For reduction in daily hours from 9 to 8 without reduction in wages.	No	No	1	28	-
Machinists, pressers, sawyers and shippers.	Wellesley, .	Against reduction in working hours.	No	No	1	28	-
Granite cutters, polishers, and sawyers.	Worcester, .	For increase in minimum rates of wages from 40 to 42 cents for cutters, from 36 to 42 cents for polishers, and from 31 to 42 cents for sawyers; and for Saturday half-holiday throughout the year.	Yes	Yes	7	100	50
BUILDING.							
Building Trades.							
Carpenters, . . .	Billerica, .	For uniform rate of wages of 45 cents an hour.	Yes	No	1	25	-
Bricklayers, . . .	Billerica, .	For increase in hourly rate of wages from 60 to 65 cents.	No	No	1	30	-
Sheet metal workers, and other building workmen.	Boston, .	Against employment of three non-union sheet metal workers from New York.	Yes	No	1	10	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Aver- age Dura- tion in Work- ing Days	Num- ber of Work- ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree- ment Made in Writ- ing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employ- ees Left Work	Strikers Re- employed or Their Places Filled			Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded	Failed						
May 27	Aug. 27	76	7,325	—	—	300	Some of strikers returned to work without concessions by employer and places of others were filled by August 27.	No				
Sep. 16	Sept. 26– Mar. 31 1913	113.8	1,156	—	64	—	Two firms signed soon after the strike began. Later an agreement, to take effect Mar. 31, 1913, was signed by a representative of the employers and a representative of the union. The two firms who had earlier signed the union agreement were included in the later arrangements. The terms of agreement provide for a minimum wage of 44 cents an hour for journeymen until Sept. 1, 1914, and then 46 cents an hour until 1916; 50 hours a week until Jan. 1, 1916, then 48 hours per week; open shop conditions.	Yes				
Feb. 2	Feb. 12	8	560	—	70	—	Foreman was discharged, better facilities for washing, etc., were provided. Places of strikers were filled.	No				
Aug. 6	Aug. 10	4	72	18	—	—	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Apr. 15	Apr. 16	1	29	29	—	—	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Dec. 11	Dec. 16	4	72	—	18	—	Employer agreed to put work on a piece-prize basis and the strikers returned to work.	No				
Jun. 10	Jun. 11	1	28	28	—	—	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Dec. 6	Dec. 9	2	56	—	—	28	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
May 1	Jun. 3	27	4,050	100	—	—	Five-year agreement was signed between manufacturers and union. All classes of workmen were granted minimum rate of 42 cents an hour—minimum rate for cutters to be 50 cents from May 1, 1916, to May 1, 1917. Saturday half-holiday was granted for the entire year.	Yes				
Aug. 6	Aug. 12	5	125	—	—	25	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Nov. 8	Dec. 2	19	570	—	—	30	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Feb. 5	Feb. 12	6	60	10	—	—	Settled through direct negotiations; non-union workmen were sent back to New York and strikers resumed work.	No				

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- strik- ers Thrown Out of Work
Building Trades — Con.							
Lathers, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against employment of iron workers on certain building to do work claimed by the lathers to come under the jurisdiction of their union.	Yes	No	3	63	-
Sign writers and helpers.	Boston, . . .	For suspension of employee pending his full initiation into union.	Yes	No	1	22	-
Carpenters, plasterers, bricklayers, hod carriers, and metal lathers.	Boston, . . .	Against the replacing of members of the International Association of Steamfitters, at work on a certain building, with members of the United Association of Plumbers and Steamfitters. This change was made by contractor in order to support the decision of the A. F. of L. that there should be but one general organization in the pipe fitting industries of the country, that organization to be the United Association.	Yes	No	1	252	300
Plumbers, steamfitters, pipe coverers, and electricians.	Boston, . . .	Against employment of non-union painters.	Yes	No	1	22	-
Carpenters, . . .	Boston, . . .	For the discharge of two non-union bricklayers and for the employment of union men in their places.	Yes	No	1	27	-
Structural iron workers and hoisting engineers.	Boston, . . .	For discharge of certain iron worker not in good standing in union, who was employed on another building.	No	No	1	25	-
Painters and decorators,	Boston and Brookline.	For an increase in hourly rates from 50 to 55 cents for decorators and 45½ to 50 cents for painters.	Yes	Yes	15	437	-
Sign writers and helpers,	Boston, . . .	For increase in minimum daily wage from \$4 to \$5 for sign writers and from \$2 to \$3 for helpers, and for Saturday half-holiday.	Yes	Yes	1	18	-
Building workmen,	Boston, Beverly, Everett, Holbrook, Northampton and Salem.	Against employment of steamfitters who were members of the International Association of Steamfitters and for employment of members of the United Association of Plumbers and Steamfitters.	Yes	No	18	506	285

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Aver- age Dura- tion in Work- ing Days	Num- ber of Work- ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree- ment Made in Writ- ing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employ- ees Left Work	Strikers Re- employed or Their Places Filled			Suc- ceeded	Partly Suc- ceeded	Failed						
Feb. 7	Feb. 14	6	378	63	-	-	Iron workers finished work in dispute. Agreement with general contractor was made, however, that in the future the jurisdiction over the trade granted by the A. F. of L. to lathers would be maintained.	No				
Feb. 26	Mar. 1	4	88	22	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations between employer and strikers.	No				
Feb. 27	Mar. 7	8	4,416	252	-	-	The U. A. fitters were taken off the work and the trades in sympathy with the I. A. workmen finished their work. The steamfitting was finally finished by the I. A. workmen.	No				
Feb. 28	Mar. 1-11	10	91	-	-	22	Strikers returned to work under same conditions existing prior to strike.	No				
Mar. 26	Mar. 27	1	27	27	-	-	Non-union bricklayers discharged and union bricklayers employed to finish work.	No				
Mar. 26	Apr. 10	13	325	-	-	25	Employer obtained preliminary injunction restraining union officials from causing a strike on three buildings under construction; 30 days later men struck; as result of conferences employer had injunction removed. Non-union iron workers completed the building.	No				
Apr. 1	Apr. 22	11	6,185	396	-	41	Increase granted in greater part of establishments. Settled by direct negotiations.	-				
Apr. 6	Apr. 16	8	144	18	-	-	Employer signed agreement granting all demands of union.	Yes				
Apr. 10	Apr. 22-Jun. 18	56	24,517	18	43	445	A greater part of the strikers returned to work on different dates under same conditions existing prior to strike; on some buildings, however, work was not resumed by the different trades that struck until the work of steamfitting was finished. Injunctions were granted by the Superior Court to several of the contractors involved, restraining strikers from interfering with their business.	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers	Thrown Out of Work
Building Trades —Con.								
Carpenters, plumbers, electricians, etc.	Boston, . . .	Refusal to work on same building with non-union painters.	Yes	No	1	11		-
Gas and electric fixture fitters.	Boston, . . .	Two employers reported that men struck for increase in wages from 45 to 50 cents an hour. Union reported that 10 men in one of the establishments struck against employment of non-union men.	Yes	Yes	2	27		-
Electricians, . . .	Boston, . . .	For the discharge of non-union fixture hangers.	Yes	No	1	4		-
Steam and sprinkler fitters.	Boston, . . .	For increase in minimum daily wage from \$2.75 to \$4 for fitters; \$1.75 to \$2.50 for helpers; traveling expenses and allowance for board when working away from Providence, R. I.; employment of none but members of the union; and Saturday half-holiday. (These strikers were working on a building in Boston, but were employees of a contractor of Providence, R. I., in which city a general strike of steamfitters was in progress.	Yes	Yes	1	31		-
Plumbers, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against employer working as a journeyman although he held a journeyman's license.	Yes	No	1	32		-
Painters (Hebrew), .	Boston, . . .	For an increase in weekly wages from \$18 to \$20.	Yes	Yes	3	31		-
Hoisting engineers, plumbers, electrical workers, sheet metal workers, and steamfitters.	Boston, . . .	To enforce union schedule for hoisting engineers; \$25 for a 44-hour week, time and one-half for overtime work, and double time for Saturday afternoons.	Yes	No	1	89		-
Painters (Hebrew), .	Boston, . . .	For weekly wage of \$20 and employment of only union painters as previously agreed upon by employer.	Yes	Yes	1	20		-
Painters, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against employment of hard wood finishers to do work which painters claimed came under the jurisdiction of their union.	Yes	No	1	68		-
Teamsters, . . .	Boston, . . .	For increase in wages to \$13.50 a week for tip-cart drivers, 25 cents an hour for overtime, all legal holidays off, and time and one-half for Sunday work.	Yes	No	1	30		-
Electrical workers, .	Boston, . . .	For employment of none but union workmen.	Yes	No	2	16		-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 -- Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Apr. 10	Apr. 15	4	44	11	-	-	Contract for painting on building in question was given to a firm employing union men.	No				
May 1	May 8	6	162	10	17	-	One employer granted increase to some of employees; one employer granted an increase to all his employees. Union reports that the objectionable non-union employees were replaced by union men.	No				
May 7	May 8	1	4	4	-	-	Non-union fixture hangers were discharged.	No				
May 9	May 13	3	93	-	31	-	Settled by negotiations between labor organization and employer. Minimum daily wage of \$4 granted to fitters, \$2.25 to helpers, and where 3 fitters are employed an "Improver" may be employed at \$3 a day; railroad fares and 75 cents a day board allowance when away from established headquarters, employment of none but members of United Association in cities where said association is in control, and Saturday half-holiday in cities where same is in effect.	Yes				
May 24	Jun. 6	10	320	-	-	32	Strikers returned to work without concessions by employer.	No				
Jun. 3	Jun. 17	8	150	31	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations,	Yes				
Aug. 1	Aug. 30	25	1,013	-	-	89	Contractor refused to grant demands of engineers and filled their places; the other workmen who struck in support of the engineers' demand were instructed by their respective unions to return to work.	No				
Aug. 19	Sep. 3	12	240	20	-	-	Employer granted increase and agreed to employ only union men in the future.	Yes				
Aug. 20	Aug. 22	2	136	68	-	-	Settled through negotiations between strikers and the owners of the building on which work was being done.	No				
Sep. 3	Nov. 1	51	180	30	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	-				
Sep. 18	Sep. 21	2	36	16	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	Yes				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Building Trades —Con.							
Painters, . . .	Boston, . .	For employment of union painters only.	Yes	No	1	6	-
Building trades workmen.	Boston, . .	That members of the United Association of Plumbers and Steamfitters be employed instead of members of the International Association of Steamfitters.	Yes	No	1	47	-
Electricians, . . .	Boston, . .	For union shop, . . .	No	No	1	15	-
Plumbers, . . .	Easthampton,	For a signed agreement for two years establishing a minimum wage of \$3.50 a day for journeymen who have worked at trade for more than six years.	Yes	Yes	3	11	-
Painters and paper-hangers.	Gloucester, .	For reduction in weekly hours of labor from 48 to 44 without decrease in wages of \$18 a week, and for closed shop.	Yes	Yes	6	49	-
Painters and paper-hangers.	Haverhill, .	Against "open shop" conditions.	Yes	No	1	6	4
Painters, . . .	Holyoke, .	Because employer was not recognized by union as an authorized master painter.	Yes	No	1	3	-
Painters and paper-hangers.	Holyoke, .	Because the master painters refused to join the painters' union.	Yes	No	2	5	-
Painters, . . .	Lawrence, .	In sympathy with painters employed by same firm in Boston who struck for an increase in wages.	Yes	No	1	14	-
Sheet metal workers, .	Lowell, . .	For increase in wages from \$2.50 to \$3 a day.	Yes	Yes	7	31	-
Carpenters, . . .	Lynn, . .	Against employment of carpenters at less than union rates of wages.	Yes	No	1	5	-
Carpenters, . . .	Lynn, . .	For discharge of floor layers who were doing work claimed to be under jurisdiction of carpenters.	No	No	1	12	10
Plumbers, tinsmiths, and helpers.	Lynn, . .	For the dismissal of a certain workman who was employed in violation of the union rules.	Yes	No	1	8	-
Carpenters, . . .	Lynn, . .	For payment of union rates of wages.	Yes	No	1	12	-
Carpenters, . . .	Lynn, . .	For payment of union rate of wages.	Yes	No	1	13	-
Sheet metal workers and plumbers.	Lynn, . .	Against employment of tinsmiths to do work claimed by plumbers to be under jurisdiction of their union.	Yes	No	1	5	-
Painters, . . .	Medford, .	For Saturday half-holiday the year round without loss of pay.	Yes	Yes	1	6	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Nov. 6	Nov. 13	6	36	6	-	-	Contract for painting given to another firm and union men employed.	No				
Nov. 11	Nov. 12	1	47	47	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations.	No				
Dec. 17	Dec. 24	6	90	-	-	15	Places of strikers were filled. On Dec. 27, 1912, an injunction was granted by the Superior Court restraining electrical workers' union from interfering with the business of the contractor in question.	No				
Aug. 15	Aug. 16, Sep. 5, 18	15.3	188	9	-	2	Union agreement signed by two of the employers.	Yes				
May 1	May 2-4	2.3	110	49	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations.	Yes				
Aug. 20	Aug. 22	2	20	-	-	6	Places of strikers were filled with non-union workmen.	No				
Jun. 12	Jun. 24	10	30	3	-	-	Work was resumed under the supervision of a union foreman.	No				
Oct. 18	Oct. 28, 31	9.5	49	5	-	-	Contractors in question became members of the union.	No				
Apr. 3	Apr. 24	17	238	14	-	-	Strikers returned to work upon settlement of strike in Boston.	No				
Apr. 22	Jun. 15	22.9	707	2	7	22	One employer granted increase.	No				
Jun. 13	Jun. 19	5	25	5	-	-	Contractor agreed to employ men at union rate of wages in the future and filed a bond to that effect.	Yes				
Aug. 7	Aug. 9	2	78	12	-	-	The floor layers were discharged and carpenters employed in their places.	No				
Aug. 28	Aug. 30	2	16	8	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations.	No				
Oct. 30	Nov. 11	10	120	12	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations.	Yes				
Nov. 12	Nov. 13	1	13	13	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations.	Yes				
Nov. 27	Dec. 16	15	75	-	-	5	Places of strikers were filled.	No				
May 1	May 2	1	6	6	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations.	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Building Trades —Con.							
Painters, . . .	New Bedford,	In sympathy with strike against same employer in Boston.	Yes	-	1	8	-
Plumbers, . . .	New Bedford,	Against the employment of more than one apprentice to one journeyman.	Yes	No	1	4	-
Painters and paper-hangers.	New Bedford,	For Saturday half-holiday.	Yes	-	3	54	-
Carpenters, . . .	Newburyport,	For Saturday half-holiday without loss of pay.	Yes	Yes	2	17	-
Plumbers, . . .	Pittsfield, .	For Saturday half-holiday without loss of pay.	Yes	Yes	6	11	-
Masons, tenders, and carpenters.	Somerville, .	For discharge of non-union laborers.	Yes	No	1	20	1
Building mechanics, .	Swampscott, .	Refusal to work on the same building with non-union plumbers.	Yes	No	1	45	-
Mosaic workers, . .	Watertown, .	For the discharge of 3 non-union mosaic workers.	Yes	No	1	20	-
Sheet metal workers, .	Worcester, .	For Saturday half-holiday without loss of pay during three months of the year.	Yes	Yes	4	13	-
Painters, . . .	Worcester, .	For increase in minimum rate of wages from \$19.20 to \$20 a week and reduction in weekly hours of labor from 48 to 44.	Yes	Yes	20	200	5
Plumbers, . . .	Worcester, .	For increase in weekly wages from \$24 to \$25 and for 44-hour week for entire year instead of 48 hours for six months and 44 hours for remaining six months of the year.	Yes	No	19	93	-
Steel erectors, . . .	Worcester, .	For discharge of non-union workman.	No	No	1	37	5
Unskilled Building Labor.							
Laborers, . . .	Billerica, .	For increase in daily wages from \$1.75 to \$2.	No	No	1	150	-
Laborers, . . .	Billerica, .	For increase in daily wages from \$1.85 to \$2.	No	No	1	25	-
Laborers and teamsters,	Boston, .	For increase in wages from 25 to 30 cents an hour.	Yes	No	1	50	-
Laborers, . . .	Lawrence, .	For reduction in hours to eight a day or 25 cents a day increase in wages.	No	No	1	5	10
Laborers, . . .	Pittsfield, .	For increase in wages from \$2.25 to \$2.65 a day.	No	No	1	10	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —	Employees Left Work			NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
				Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Apr. 5	Apr. 24	16	128	8	-	-	Employer granted demands of the Boston strikers and the local strikers returned to work.	-				
Apr. 16	Apr. 19	3	12	4	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Jul. 1, 8	Jul. 6, 13	4	225	-	-	54	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
May 4	May 10, 13	6	103	-	8	9	Strikers in one establishment were granted a reduction in weekly hours from 48 to 47, and an increase in hourly rates of wages from $37\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 40 cents.	No				
Jul. 6	Jul. 13-22	10.8	129	11	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Mar. 13	Mar. 14	1	21	-	-	20	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
May 8	May 13	4	180	45	-	-	Sub-contractor for plumbing work agreed with general contractor to withdraw his men until the other mechanics had finished their work.	No				
Aug. 15	Aug. 26	9	180	-	-	20	Strikers returned to work without concessions from employer.	No				
Apr. 1	Apr. 24	19	247	-	13	-	Strikers returned to work after an agreement had been signed by representatives of employers and employees providing for an increase in minimum wage from \$3 to \$3.25 a day commencing Apr. 1, 1913.	Yes				
Apr. 1	Apr. 5-May 20	33.7	6,516	-	144	56	Settled by signing compromise agreement in 16 of the establishments, benefiting 144 strikers; employers granted a 44-hour week, minimum wage to be \$19.20 until Apr. 1, 1913, and \$20 after that date until Apr. 1, 1917. Strike failed in 4 of the establishments, the place of the strikers being filled.	Yes				
May 1	May 3-15	7	638	-	91	2	A five-year agreement was signed on May 9 by representatives of Master Plumbers Association and of the union. Journeymen to receive \$24.75 for a 44-hour week throughout the year.	Yes				
Sep. 17	Sep. 19	2	84	-	-	37	Union being unable to furnish sufficient union workmen at that time, the strikers returned to work with non-union men.	No				
May 13	May 14	1	150	-	150	-	Wages were increased to \$1.85 a day,	No				
Jul. 24	Aug. 5	10	250	-	-	25	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Jan. 18	Jan. 26	7	350	-	-	50	Strikers returned to work at same rate of wages as paid prior to strike.	No				
Sep. 26	Sep. 27	1	15	-	-	5	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Oct. 15	Oct. 16	1	10	-	-	10	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Unskilled Building Labor — Con.							
Hod carriers and masons,	Springfield,	Against use of wheelbarrows instead of hods for the purpose of supplying masons with building material.	Yes	No ¹	1	26	-
Laborers, . . .	Warren,	For increase in wages of 20 cents a day.	No	No	1	17	-
Laborers, . . .	Winchester,	For increase in wages from \$1.75 to \$2 a day and reduction in hours from 9 to 8 a day.	No	No	2	185	25
TRANSPORTATION.							
Railroads.							
Laborers, . . .	Ludlow,	For increase in wages from \$1.75 to \$2 for 9½-hour day or for \$1.80 for 9-hour day.	No	No	1	55	-
Laborers, . . .	Ludlow,	For increase in daily wages from \$1.80 to \$2 and reduction in hours of labor from 9½ to 9.	No	No	1	50	50
Laborers, . . .	Southbridge,	For change in commissary arrangements.	No	No	1	16	-
Carpenters, . . .	Southbridge,	For weekly payment of wages.	No	-	1	12	-
Laborers, . . .	Webster,	Against discharge of fellow employees.	No	No	1	60	-
Trackmen and laborers,	Worcester,	For increase in wages from \$1.70 for permanent trackmen and \$1.60 for extra trackmen and laborers to \$1.80 for all trackmen and laborers.	No	No	1	341	-
Road, Street, and Bridge Transportation.							
<i>Street Railways.</i> Car and train service employees.	Boston, .	Against discharge of employees because of their membership in the union or for their activity in its formation.	Yes	Yes	1	- ²	-

¹ First demands were verbal. Written demands made later.² Employer reported 2,200; union reported 3,600.

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
				Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Mar. 7	Mar. 19	10	249	26	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Oct. 10	Oct. 15	4	68	-	-	17	Demand not granted. Several returned to work, places of others were filled.	No				
May 2	May 13, Aug. 1	42.5	2,582	-	-	185	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Apr. 19	Apr. 20	1	55	-	-	55	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
May 20	May 21	1	150	-	-	50	Strikers resumed work under conditions existing prior to strike.	No				
Aug. 20	Aug. 22	2	32	-	-	16	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Oct. 8	Oct. 9	1	12	-	-	12	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	-				
Sep. 27	Sep. 30	2	120	-	-	60	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Jul. 31	Aug. 8	7	2,387	-	341	-	Wages for extra laborers were increased from \$1.60 to \$1.70 a day.	No				
Jun. 7	Aug. 19	56	20,500	2,200 or 3,600	-	-	Company agreed not to discriminate in the employment and discharge of men, as between men who did or did not belong to any labor organization; to allow any employee to belong or not to belong to any such organization; to meet its employees for the discussion of grievances whether they come as individuals or as representatives of any organization of the employees; to allow members of grievance committees leave of absence and reinstatement in former positions and ratings upon completion of such leave; that State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration determine what men should be taken back, the time within which they should be taken back, and the rating at which they should be taken back; that future grievances which could not be settled between company and organization be referred to State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration or a special board.	Yes				

TABLE 14. — *Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- ganiza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- strik- ers Thrown Out of Work
Road, Street, and Bridge Transportation—Con.							
Street Railways — Con.							
Track laborers, . . .	Pittsfield, . . .	For increase in wages from \$1.65 to \$1.75 a day and decrease in daily hours from 10 to 9.	No	No	1	35	-
Construction of Streets, Roads, Sewers, and Bridges.							
Laborers (road), . . .	West Springfield, . . .	For increase in wages from \$2 to \$2.25 a day.	No	No	1	8	20
Laborers, . . .	Dudley, . . .	Against discharge of foreman.	No	No	1	25	-
Water Transportation.							
Longshoremen, . . .	Boston, . . .	For increase in wages from 30 to 40 cents an hour for day work and from 40 to 50 cents for night work.	Yes	Yes	19	2,285	-
Longshoremen, . . .	Boston, . . .	For reinstatement of union clerks who struck in sympathy with longshoremen.	No	No	2	195	-
Longshoremen, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against lifting two 500-pound iron pipes aboard steamship in one load.	No	No	1	40	-
Marine firemen, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against discharge of 3 firemen and for discharge of a certain oiler.	Yes	No	1	12	-
Marine firemen, . . .	Boston, . . .	For new agreement that companies obtain all crews from union, that all men in engine-room be subject to immediate discharge upon demand of union, that a union delegate be employed on every ship as a member of the crew, that all men in the engine-room join the union, and for increases in wages and restriction of hours.	Yes	Yes	8	453	161
Deck hands, . . .	New Bedford, . . .	For increase in wages, . . .	No	No	1	20	-
TRADE.							
Wholesale and Retail.							
Coal teamsters, . . .	Fall River, . . .	For privilege of ceasing work when they so desired in stormy weather.	No	No	1	16	-
Coal handlers, . . .	Fall River, . . .	For increase in hourly wages from 35 to 40 cents for shoveling and from 30 to 35 cents for wheeling.	No	No	6	106	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912—Continued.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Jul. 1	Jul. 8	5	175	-	-	35	Strikers voluntarily returned to work under former conditions.	No				
Jul. 18	Jul. 22	3	34	-	-	8	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Sep. 28	Oct. 1	2	50	-	-	25	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Jan. 5	Feb. 14	34	13,710	-	-	2,285	Strikers returned to work under scale of wages existing prior to strike; settlement was reached through conference between steamship agents, master stevedores, and representatives of the union; a system of arbitration for settlement of any future disputes between employer and employees was established; the National Civic Federation acted as mediator. Strikers returned to work without securing reinstatement of union clerks.	No				
Feb. 14, 21	Feb. 15, 21	1	74	-	-	195		No				
May 30	May 31	1	40	-	-	40	Men returned to work under same conditions existing prior to strike.	No				
Jun. 18	Jun. 20	2	24	-	-	12	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Jun. 29	Jul. 4	3.1	1,358	106	-	347	Written agreement was signed by union and 3 steamship companies involved in the strike; remaining companies filled places of strikers.	-				
Jul. 12	Jul. 13	1	20	20	-	-	Employer announced intention to establish new wage basis and men returned to work.	No				
Feb. 20	Feb. 26	4	64	-	-	16	Strikers returned to work under conditions existing prior to strike.	No				
Oct. 30, 31	Nov. 1, 4	2.5	259	106	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Ordered by Labor Organization	Demands of Strikers Made in Writing	Number of Establishments	Number of Strikers	Number of Non-strikers Thrown Out of Work
Wholesale and Retail — Con.							
Coal teamsters, . . .	Lowell, . . .	For increase in weekly wages from \$14 to \$15 for drivers of double teams and from \$12.50 to \$13.50 for drivers of single teams.	Yes	Yes	7	61	3
Cold Storage.							
Warehousemen, . . .	Boston, . . .	For increase in hourly wages from 30 to 40 cents.	No	No	1	20	-
PUBLIC SERVICE.							
Public Administration.							
<i>State.</i>							
Laborers, . . .	Lenox, . . .	For increase in daily wages from \$1.75, and transportation to and from work, to \$2 and transportation.	No	No	1	20	-
<i>Municipal.</i>							
Tree climbers, . . .	Worcester, . . .	For increase in hourly wages from 25 to 30 cents.	No	No	1	7	-
PROFESSIONAL SERVICE.							
Theaters.							
Motion picture operators, Boston, . . .		For increase in wages, 50 cents an hour for overtime over 7 hours a day, one week's notice of discharge, and recognition of union.	Yes	Yes	5	6	10
Stage employees, . . .	Lynn, . . .	For employment of full crew of 6 men during summer months, instead of 4 which management considered sufficient.	Yes	No	1	6	1
DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICE.							
Miscellaneous Occupations.							
Waiters, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against demand by employer that all silverware destroyed or mutilated in the future be paid for.	No	No	1	6	-
Pantry girls, . . .	Boston, . . .	Against working under man who was employed in place of a woman discharged.	No	No	1	8	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Continued.

DURATION		Aver-age Duration in Work-ing Days	Num-ber of Work-ing Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agree-ment Made in Writ-ing				
DATES ON WHICH —	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
				Suc-ceeded	Partly Suc-ceeded	Failed						
Sep. 13	Sep. 13, 14	0.6	38	61	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Jul. 23	Jul. 27	4	80	20	-	-	Settled by direct negotiations,	No				
Jun. 4	Jun. 24	17	1,727	-	102	-	Strikers were granted Saturday half-holiday for 4 months of the year, increase in wages of 50 cents a week, and 30 cents an hour for overtime. The daily hours (10) remained the same. Agreement was signed for two years.	Yes				
May 14	May 15	1	50	-	-	50	Places of strikers were filled by employees from other departments.	No				
May 16	May 20	3	60	-	-	20	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Aug. 2	Aug. 5	2	14	-	-	7	Places of strikers were filled, . .	No				
Apr. 29	Apr. 30, Jul. 8	47	15	-	3	3	Two managers granted increase in wages; others filled places of strikers.	No				
Jun. 30	-	35	211	-	6	-	Employed 4 men at increase in wages from \$3 a day and 50 cents an hour for overtime, to \$24 a week.	No				
Mar. 21	Mar. 22	1	6	-	-	6	Men returned under conditions demanded by employer.	No				
Mar. 22	Mar. 23	1	8	-	-	8	Employer filled places of strikers but hired a woman to take charge of pantry.	No				

TABLE 14.—*Detailed Statement of Strikes and*

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS.	Localities	Causes	Or- dered by Labor Or- gan- iza- tion	De- mands of Strik- ers Made in Writ- ing	Num- ber of Estab- lish- ments	Num- ber of Strik- ers	Num- ber of Non- stri- kers Thrown Out of Work
Miscellaneous Occupations — Con.							
Bartenders, . . .	Boston, . .	For discharge of female waitresses and for employment of male waiters.	Yes	No	1	4	-
Cooks, waiters, porters, bell boys, etc.	Boston, . .	For increase in wages, reduction in hours, and improvements in working conditions.	Yes	-	7	729	80
Bartenders and waiters,	Boston, . .	For employment of none but union bartenders.	Yes	No	2	11	1
Barbers, . . .	Haverhill, .	For increase in weekly wages from \$12 to \$13, 50% commission weekly on all receipts over \$5 above their weekly wages, all shops to close Monday at 1 P.M. and Wednesday at 6 P.M. Shops during rest of the week to open at 7.30 A.M. and close at 8 P.M.	Yes	Yes	19	33	-
Laundry and Laundry Work.							
Laundry workers, .	Fall River, .	For reinstatement of two discharged employees.	No	No	1	10	-
EXTRACTIVE INDUSTRIES.							
Minerals.							
<i>Quarrying.</i>							
Stone cutters, . . .	Hopkinton, . .	Against discharge of six stone cutters.	No	No	1	52	-
Quarrymen, . . .	Milford and Hopkinton.	For increase in wages from 29 to 31 cents an hour for quarrymen and from 30 to 32 cents an hour for derrick men; Saturday half-holiday for the entire year instead of for six months.	Yes	Yes	3	67	22
Engineers, . . .	Milford and Hopkinton.	For increase in weekly wages from \$17 to \$18 for a 45-hour week.	Yes	Yes	3	10	-

Lockouts Reported During 1912 — Concluded.

DURATION		Average Duration in Working Days	Number of Working Days Lost	RESULTS			Remarks	Agreement Made in Writing				
DATES ON WHICH —				NUMBER OF STRIKERS WHO —								
Employees Left Work	Strikers Re-employed or Their Places Filled			Succeeded	Partly Succeeded	Failed						
Jun. 3	Jun. 4	1	4	-	-	4	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Aug. 26	Sep. 28	27	4,197	-	300	429	Places of majority of strikers were filled but concessions varying according to working conditions were granted by two employers.	-				
Oct. 8	Oct. 10	2	22	11	-	-	Settled through direct negotiations between employer and representatives of employees.	Yes				
Dec. 2	Feb. 8	22.6	605	2	8	23	One employer granted all demands, three made compromises, and 15 filled places of strikers.	No				
Apr. 1	Apr. 2	1	10	-	-	10	Places of strikers were filled, . . .	No				
Oct. 18	Nov. 11	20	1,040	-	-	52	Settled through direct negotiations,	No				
Apr. 1	Apr. 8-Jun. 3	30	2,789	-	67	-	Settled through direct negotiations; quarrymen were granted 30 cents an hour for 4 years, 31 cents the fifth year, derrick men 24 to 31 cents an hour; no change in hours of labor.	Yes				
Apr. 1	Jun. 3	30	367	-	10	-	Settled through direct negotiations; following rates granted: 39 cents an hour (engines with boilers), 37 cents an hour (skeleton electric).	Yes				

APPENDIX I.

DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

(a) A *strike* is a concerted withdrawal from work by a part or all of the employees of an establishment, or several establishments, to enforce a demand on the part of the employees. (b) A *lockout* is a refusal on the part of the employer, or several employers, to permit a part or all of the employees to continue at work, such refusal being made to enforce a demand on the part of the employers, or to resist some demand made by their employees. (c) A *sympathetic strike* is one in which the employees of an establishment, or of several establishments, make no demand for their own benefit but go out in order to assist the employees of some other establishment in enforcing their demand.

(d) *The Units of Statistics of Causes, Results, and Magnitude.* — The statistics as to the causes and results of strikes are based not upon the individual strike as the unit, but upon the establishment and the number of strikers. Strikes lasting less than one day have not been taken into account in compiling the statistics, although the principal facts that could be obtained relating to such strikes in which there was an actual well-defined cessation of work are presented separately on pages 14-15. The term "strike," as used in this report, refers to both strikes and lockouts; the term "strikers" refers to both strikers and locked-out employees; and the results of all disputes are presented from the standpoint of the employee. In all tabulations dealing with the question as to whether or not the strikes were ordered by labor organizations, lockouts have been omitted for obvious reasons since it is evident that lockouts could not be tabulated under either of these headings.

(e) The number of *working days lost*, — computed by multiplying the number of strikers by the duration of the strike, the number of employees thrown out of work by the number of days they were out of work, and adding the products, — which takes into account the element of time and the number of other employees thrown out

of work as a result of the strike, as well as the number of strikers, is theoretically the best index for statistical comparison of the magnitude of labor disputes. The result of this calculation can be at best only approximate, because of the difficulty in accurately computing the working time lost in strikes in which the places of the strikers are gradually filled by others. In disputes where the places of the strikers are filled this figure must necessarily be computed from the employer's point of view, as it would be impracticable to attempt to determine how long it took each striker to obtain employment if his former position was filled by another.

(f) An *establishment* is the place or places of work operated by a person, firm, or corporation in a locality. The plants of different employers in the same locality, or of the same employer in different localities, are considered separate establishments. In the building trades each separate building under construction is considered an establishment whether there is one employer or several, except in general strikes, in which case each employer is considered a separate establishment irrespective of the number of buildings upon which his employees may be at work.

(g) A *general strike* is a strike involving two or more establishments and entered into by the concerted action of employees of several establishments. General strikes involving more than one city or town have been tabulated, in so far as the number of strikes is concerned, under the locality most affected. The data relating to establishments, strikers, other employees thrown out of work, etc., have been tabulated under the city or town in which the establishments struck were located. Statistics of general strikes extending outside of Massachusetts include only figures for those establishments which are located within the Commonwealth.

(h) The number of *strikers* includes only those who actually joined in the demand for

some change in conditions of employment for themselves or for others, or against some change made or proposed by the employer and followed the demand by a cessation of work, and in the case of lockouts the term is used to include the number of employees whom the employer refused to allow to work unless they complied with his demand.

(i) The term "*non-strikers thrown out of work*," as used in this report, refers to those workers who were involuntarily deprived of employment as a result of the strike action of others and were not on strike themselves.

(j) The number of *strikes ordered by labor organizations* includes all strikes ordered by direct vote of the members and also all ordered by a business agent or committee of such labor organization acting under powers conferred by that organization.

(k) *Causes.*—Anything that may produce a disagreement between employer and employee may be the cause of a strike or lockout, and, while the causes may be stated in many different ways, nearly all of them fall within a very few leading causes or groups of causes. In order to judge more accurately the relative importance of different causes of strikes, all causes have been classified into the following groups:

1. WAGES.

- 10. For Increase.
- 11. Against Decrease.
- 12. System of Payment.
- 13. Readjustment of Rates.
- 14. Other.

2. HOURS OF LABOR.

- 20. For Decrease.
- 21. Against Increase.
- 22. Other.

3. EMPLOYMENT OF PARTICULAR CLASSES OR PERSONS.

- 30. Against Employment of Laborers instead of Skilled Workers.
- 31. Against Employment of Women instead of Men.
- 32. Against Employment of Apprentices (not involving trade union rules).
- 33. For Reinstatement of Discharged Employees.
- 34. Against Employment of Certain Officials.
- 35. Disputes Between Classes of Employees.
- 36. Other.

4. WORKING CONDITIONS.

- 40. For Change in Existing Arrangement.
- 41. Against Change in Existing Arrangement.
- 42. Other.

5. TRADE UNIONISM.

- 50. Closed Shop.
- 51. Disputes Between Classes of Employees.
- 52. Recognition of Union.
- 53. Apprentice Rules.
- 54. Other.

6. SYMPATHETIC STRIKES.

7. MISCELLANEOUS.

Many strikes are for two or more causes. If each of these be taken separately in the tabulation, a fair comparison as to the relative stress laid upon demands of different kinds will be reached, and the number of groups of causes diminished. Strikes resulting from two or more causes have been counted under each of those causes combined with various causes. For example, strikes for increase in wages and reduction in hours have been included in the cause "for increase in wages" and also in the cause "for reduction in hours," as such strikes were due in part to both of these causes. (See note to Table 7, on page 46.)

(l) In computing the *duration* of disputes, the day on which the employees first ceased their work has been regarded as the beginning of a strike or lockout. The day when the employees went back to work, or the day on which enough employees had been placed at work to enable the employer to carry on his business practically as before the strike, has been regarded as the end of the dispute. Where the places of the strikers were filled temporarily, and the strike was later definitely settled, the duration has been computed by taking as the end of the strike the date on which the strikers returned or the strike was declared off by the strikers, provided this occurred within one year after the cessation of work took place.

(m) *Results.*—Strikes are tabulated as successful when the employees succeed in enforcing full compliance with all of their demands; partly successful when they succeed in enforcing compliance with a part of their demands or partial compliance with some or all of their demands; and as having failed when they did not succeed in enforcing even a partial compliance with any of their demands. It

should be borne in mind, however, that a strike which partly succeeds in attaining its object is, generally speaking, considered to be a victory for the employees. Strikers often demand more than they really expect to obtain, and a partial success may mean a material improvement in the condition of the workers.

(n) *Tabulation by Years.* — This report, which covers the calendar year 1912, includes all strikes which began during the year, although in some instances they were not settled within the year. In the table summarizing by years the number of employees involved and the working days lost, the figures given can not represent absolute accuracy for a given year because the entire number of strikers and the working days lost are placed in the year in which the strike began.

(o) The *methods of settlement* of strikes have been classified under four headings: (1) By direct negotiations, (2) by arbitration, (3) by filling places, (4) by other methods.

(1) *By direct negotiation* means that the dispute was settled by conferences or negotiations between the parties direct, or by the representatives of the organizations of employers or employees of which the parties concerned were members.

(2) *By arbitration* means that the issue which caused the dispute was referred to and settled by a disinterested third party. The

mediation or arbitration may be by one person, several persons, the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, or a local board of arbitration.

(3) *By filling places* means that the employer succeeded in procuring persons to fill the places of those who left work, or men who were able to perform the work formerly done by the strikers in such a manner that the work of the establishment could be carried on until more skilled employees could be obtained.

(4) *By other methods.* — Among other methods by which strikes are often settled may be mentioned: By return to work without negotiations; by return to work after negotiations had failed; by union ordering men to return to work; by shutting down the establishment permanently; or by abandoning work formerly done by the strikers; or by dispensing with hand labor or certain machinery or the installation of labor-saving devices which enables the employer to dispense with the strikers.

(p) The *classification of industries* used as the basis of the statistical presentations in this report is the same as that used in the reports of the Labor Division of this Bureau for 1911, and is based upon a combination of the classifications adopted by the United States Bureau of the Census for its tabulations on occupations and manufactures.

APPENDIX II.

EXPLANATION OF SCOPE AND METHOD OF THE REPORT.

In order that the method of securing the data upon which this report is based may be understood, specimens of the circular letters and forms of inquiry used by this Bureau are shown on pages 101 to 104. The distribution of these schedules and form letters is preceded by a considerable amount of clerical work in the office, made necessary in order to establish a list of strikes and lockouts, concerning which definite inquiry must be made, since no legal requirement rests upon either employers or labor or employees to voluntarily notify the Bureau of the occurrence of strikes or lockouts. We are, therefore, dependent for our primary information upon newspapers, trade journals, labor publications, etc., a large number of which are examined daily. References to strikes and lockouts found in this manner are then subjected to official verification by means of a circular letter and schedule sent to responsible representatives of both parties to the dispute.

All employers affected by a strike or lockout which occurred during the year 1912, and in cases where the cessation of work was ordered by an organization either of employers or employees officers thereof were asked to contribute their information. Approximately 617

schedules, on which appeared inquiries relating to the subject, were returned to the Bureau through correspondence and 498 by means of personal visits made by special agents. If the information given by either side in the controversy agreed with that given by the other the facts were considered accurate. If there were discrepancies, or either side refused information, an agent was sent to interview representatives of both parties to the dispute. After considering all the evidence to be gained on either side a report was made on what the facts seemed to be. It may be, therefore, that participants, or others supposing themselves to be cognizant of the facts relating to a certain strike, will find the details as exhibited in the tables somewhat different from their own recollection. In explanation it may be stated that the conflicting statements were weighed and each detail determined as judicially as possible, making the report not to agree with the testimony of a single individual, but to harmonize with the concurrent evidence of the majority, or what seemed to be the most reliable. This Bureau made every effort to secure the truth and did not leave a controversy until it fully believed that the truth had been ascertained.

APPENDIX III.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, 1912.

- Boston Street Railway Strike. By Robert A. Woods. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 598-599. Aug. 3, 1912.
- Breadth and Depth of the Lawrence Outcome. By Robert A. Woods. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 67, 68. Apr. 6, 1912.
- The Clod Stirs. By Robert A. Woods. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1929-1932. Mar. 16, 1912.
- A discussion of the Lawrence strike.
- For Justice Sake. Address delivered by Vida D. SCUDER at Lawrence. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 77-79. Apr. 6, 1912.
- Industrial Revolt at Lawrence. By John MARTIN. In *Independent*. v. 72. p. 491-495. Mar. 7, 1912.
- Labor War at Lawrence. By Mary K. O'SULLIVAN. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 72-74. Apr. 6, 1912.
- Lawrence Dynamite Conspiracy. By Samuel GOMPERS. In *American Federationist*. v. 19. p. 815-823. Oct. 1912.
- Lawrence Strike. By Samuel GOMPERS. In *American Federationist*. v. 19. p. 281-293. Apr. 1912.
- Lawrence Strike. By Wilbur E. ROWELL. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1958-1960. Mar. 23, 1912.
- Lawrence Strike. A Study. By Lorin F. DELAND. In *Atlantic Monthly*. v. 109. p. 694-705. May 1912.
- Lawrence Strike from Various Angles. A Symposium. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 65-80. Apr. 6, 1912.
- Lawrence Strike Hearings. By Constance D. LEUFF. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1953, 1954. Mar. 23, 1912.
- Lawrence Strike of 1912.* By John Bruce MCPHERSON. Boston. Rockwell & Churchill Press. 1912. (2), 46 p.
- Reprinted from the Sept. 1912 bulletin of the national association of wool manufacturers, Boston, Mass.
- Legal Aftermath of the Lawrence Strike. By James P. HEATON. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 503-510. July 6, 1912.
- Lesson from Lawrence. By William J. LAUCK. In *North American Review*. v. 195. p. 665-672. May 1912.
- New Bedford Textile Strike. By Warren D. FOSTER. In *Survey*. v. 28. p. 658, 659. Aug. 24, 1912.
- Significance of the Situation at Lawrence. The Condition of the New England Woolen Mill Operative. By W. J. LAUCK. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1772-1774. Feb. 17, 1912.
- Strike at Lawrence, Mass.* Hearings before the Committee on Rules of the House of Representatives on House Resolutions 409 and 433, Mar. 2-7, 1912. House doc. no. 671. 62d cong. 2d sess. Washington. Superintendent of Documents. 1912. 464 p.
- Strike for Four Loaves of Bread. By Lewis E. PALMER. In *Survey*. v. 27. p. 1690-1697. Feb. 3, 1912.
- An account of the textile workers' strike at Lawrence, Mass.
- Strike of Textile Workers in Lawrence, Mass., in 1912.* By Fred. C. CROXTON. Senate doc. no. 870. 62d cong. 2d sess. Washington. Bureau of Labor. 1912. 511 p.

APPENDIX IV.

SPECIMEN FORMS OF INQUIRY TO EMPLOYERS AND
REPRESENTATIVES OF THE EMPLOYEES CONCERNED
RELATING TO STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

1. CIRCULAR LETTER OF INQUIRY SENT TO EMPLOYERS.



CHARLES F. GETTEMY
DIRECTOR

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts

Bureau of Statistics

LABOR DIVISION

State House

Boston,

DEAR SIR:

This Bureau is desirous of obtaining a *complete* and *accurate* record of strikes and lockouts in Massachusetts, as they occur, for publication in the Annual Report to the Legislature.

These statistics are collected and published by the Bureau in pursuance of the general provisions of the law governing the duties of this department; but since no legal requirement rests upon employers to notify this Bureau that a strike or lockout has *begun*, we are necessarily dependent upon various other sources for our primary information. Such information (which is *not always accurate or complete*) we desire to subject to official verification by the parties immediately concerned, and, therefore, ask that you kindly answer as many as possible of the questions on the form annexed in so far as they relate to

Permit me to assure you that any information you may be willing to furnish will be used solely for statistical purposes and *will not be published under your name*, although the names of establishments and organizations concerned in large and important disputes may occasionally be published when the information is a matter of common knowledge and publicity in the press.

The practice of the Bureau is to ask a representative of the employees affected by the dispute for similar particulars.

Assuring you of our appreciation of your courtesy in this matter, I am,

Respectfully yours,

CHARLES F. GETTEMY,
Director.

2 (a). SCHEDULE SENT WITH CIRCULAR LETTER TO EMPLOYERS
 (PAGE 1).

Information for the use of the Bureau of Statistics, State House, Boston.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

Definitions: A *strike* is a concerted withdrawal from work by a part or all of the employees of an establishment or several establishments to enforce a demand on the part of the employees. A *sympathetic strike* is one in which the employees of an establishment, or of several establishments, make no demand for their own benefit but go out in order to assist the employees of some *other* establishment in enforcing their demand. A *lockout* is a refusal on the part of the employer or several employers to permit a part or all of the employees to continue at work, such refusal being made to enforce a demand on the part of the employers.

To be returned as soon as possible without waiting for termination of dispute.

1. City or town in which dispute took place?
2. Name of employer?
3. Locality, street and number of place of business?
- 3a. In the case of a strike in the building trades, state the location and name of building on which men struck?
4. What other firms, if any, were involved in this strike?
5. **Conditions demanded by strikers?**
6. Were the demands of the strikers made in writing? If so, kindly enclose a copy.
7. **Conditions existing before strike?**
8. **Conditions granted by employer?**
9. Was an agreement made in writing at end of strike? If so, kindly enclose a copy.
10. Was the strike ordered by a labor organization? Name of organization?
11. Occupations of strikers?
12. Number of persons in your employ who struck? Males Females Total .
13. Number of non-strikers who were idle on account of the strike? Males Females Total .
14. Date of first demand or notice which led to the dispute?
15. Date on which employees first left work? Time of day?
16. Date on which work was actually resumed by strikers?
17. If strike was not declared off, when were the places of enough strikers filled so that employer was enabled to carry on the work practically as before the strike?
18. How many working days were those employees, who were involuntarily thrown out of employment by the strike, out of work?
19. Give an account of any negotiations which took place between the date when first demand was made, and date when employees struck?
20. What measures did the strikers take to retain the positions which they vacated?
21. Method of settlement. Underline the method used in this dispute: (1) By negotiations between employer and employees, or their representatives; (2) By arbitration (referred to and settled by a distinctive third party); If settled by arbitration give name of person or body acting as arbitrator; (3) By filling places of strikers; If settled by filling places were the employees secured from other localities? (4) By other methods (specify).

3. CIRCULAR LETTER SENT TO REPRESENTATIVES OF EMPLOYEES CONCERNED.



The Commonwealth of Massachusetts

Bureau of Statistics

CHARLES F. GETTEMY
DIRECTOR

LABOR DIVISION

State House

Boston,

DEAR SIR:

This Bureau is desirous of obtaining a *complete* and *accurate* record of strikes and lockouts in Massachusetts as they occur for publication in the Annual Report to the Legislature.

These statistics are collected and published by the Bureau in pursuance of the general provisions of the law governing the duties of this department; but since no legal requirement rests upon either employers or employees to notify this Bureau that a strike or lockout has *begun*, we are necessarily dependent upon various other sources for our primary information. Such information (which is *not always accurate or complete*) we desire to subject to official verification by the parties immediately concerned, and, therefore, ask that you kindly answer as many as possible of the questions on the form annexed in so far as they relate to

Permit me to assure you that all returns of individual unions will be regarded as *absolutely confidential*, and the information procured will be published in the form of summaries only so as to show *general conditions* existing in the Commonwealth; the individual sources of information will not be disclosed. The names of establishments and organizations concerned in large and important disputes may occasionally be published when the information is a matter of common knowledge and publicity in the press.

The practice of the Bureau is to ask the employer affected by the dispute for similar particulars.

Assuring you of our appreciation of your courtesy in this matter, I am,

Respectfully yours,

CHARLES F. GETTEMY,
Director.

4 (a). SCHEDULE SENT WITH CIRCULAR LETTER TO
REPRESENTATIVES OF EMPLOYEES CONCERNED (PAGE 1).

Information for the use of the Labor Division, Bureau of Statistics, State House, Boston.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

Definitions: A *strike* is a concerted withdrawal from work by a part or all of the employees of an establishment or several establishments to enforce a demand on the part of the employees. A *sympathetic strike* is one in which the employees of an establishment, or of several establishments, make no demand for their own benefit but go out in order to assist the employees of some *other* establishment in enforcing their demand. A *lockout* is a refusal on the part of the employer or several employers to permit a part or all of the employees to continue at work, such refusal being made to enforce a demand on the part of the employers.

To be returned as soon as possible without waiting for termination of dispute.

1. City or town in which dispute took place?
2. Names of employers or establishments affected?
- 2a. In the case of a strike in the building trades, state the location and name of building on which men struck?
3. **Conditions demanded by strikers?**
4. Were the demands of the strikers made in writing? If so, kindly enclose a copy.
5. **Conditions existing before strike?**
6. **Conditions granted after strike?**
7. Was an agreement made in writing at end of strike? If so, kindly enclose a copy.
8. Was the strike ordered by your local or by your national union, or did the men leave on their own responsibility?
9. Occupations of strikers?
10. Number of strikers? Males Females
Total .
11. Date of first demand or notice which led to the dispute?
12. First day on which employees left work?
13. Date on which work was actually resumed?
14. If strike was not declared off, how many members are at present on the union's strike roll?
15. If strike was not declared off, on what date did union consider strike ended?
16. Give an account of the negotiations which took place between the date when first demand was made, and date when employees struck?
17. What measures did the strikers take to retain the positions which they temporarily vacated?
18. Method of settlement. (Underline the method used in this dispute): (1) By negotiations between employer and employees, or their representatives; (2) By arbitration (referred to and settled by a distinctive third party); If settled by arbitration give name of person or body acting as arbitrator ; (3) By filling places of strikers; If settled by filling places were the employees secured from other localities? ; (4) By other methods (specify).

Date

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Information furnished by

Signature

